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## I.—SUGGESTIONS ON THE THIRD VOLUME OF KOCK'S FRAGMENTA COMICORUM GRAECORUM.

Menander, fr. 161.

May not the meaning be this? 'quae audaciora sunt, aegre quidem se probant iudiciis uulgi; at simul atque in effectum prouehuntur, modo occasione feliciter utantur, solent praeter spem
arte adiuuari.' An adventurous undertaking may fail to convince
listeners of its wisdom or feasibility, but for all that in the moment
of action sometimes succeeds; only grasp the right opportunity,
and you will find expedients will suggest themselves spontaneously in the moment of execution.

Fr. 330. 'Αλλ' οὐ τὰ βίου νῷν ἴσως δεῖ φροντίσαι.

Perhaps  $\gamma a \rho$  has fallen out after  $\beta i o v$ . Such a word would naturally be omitted where, as in the present passage of Priscian (18, 305), a verse is cited merely to illustrate a construction; here the accusafter  $\phi \rho o v r i \xi e v$ .

Fr. 355. οὐ χρηται νόμοις καθ' οὖς κρίνει τὰ πράγματα.

Possibly νόμοις μεν οὐ χρηθ οἶς κρινεῖ τὰ πράγματα.

Fr. 362.

Suidas ἀλφάνει \* εὐρἶσκει \* Μένανδρος \*Ομοπατρίοις ἢν (ἢν) δῆλον οὕτι (οὕνι) νυμφίος τε ἀλφάνει.

Bentley conj. ην δηλονοτιή νυμφίος τότ' άλφάνει.

Perhaps ἡν δηλον ούτις νυμφίος ὄστις ἀλφάνει.

Fr. 462. τὰς δ' ὀνθυλεύσεις καὶ τὰ κεκαρυκευμένα μᾶλλον προσεδέξατο χεται 'Αρκαδικὸς τοθναντίον ἀθάλασσος ἐν τοῖς λοπαδίοις άλίσκεται. So A, the best MS of Athenaeus. VL give προσεδέξατ' εὶ δέ τις ἔρχεται 'Αρκαδικός. I cannot believe that this χεται or ἔρχεται did not form part of the original tradition of the verse, and would read:

μαλλον προσεδέξατ' 'Αρκαδικός τις έρχεται ἀθάλαττος' έν τοις λοπαδίοις άλίσκεται.

It is obvious that τοὖναντίον is not necessary to the sense of the passage, and, if anything, rather spoils its effect.

Fr. 481. ὁ προσδιατρίβων δὲ σκοπιάσας ἀπώλεσε.

Possibly ὁ δὲ προσδιατρίβων σκορπίσας ἀπώλεσε.

' He who lingers on only squanders and loses what he has.' There seems no more reason to deny that Menander might have used this word than several others not of the most approved Attic currency, e. g. εὐχαριστία fr. 693, and the list contained in Phrynichus Epit. 418 μεσοπορείν, γῦρος, λήθαργος, σύσσημον, πορνοκόπος, ὀψωνιασμός, ὀψώνιον, δύσριγος (Kock, fr. 1007).¹

Fr. 531. τὸ δὲ κεφάλαιον τῶν λόγων, ἄνθρωπος εἶ, οὖ μεταβολὴν θᾶττον πρὸς ὖψος καὶ πάλιν ταπεινότητα ζῷον οὐδὲν λαμβάνει. καὶ μάλα δικαίως \* ἀσθενέστατον γὰρ δν φύσει μεγίστοις οἰκονομεῖται πράγμασιν.

Is there not here an astrological reference? Man is by nature a very infirm creature, whose horoscope is directed by the greatest powers, i. e. the stars and planets. Anth. Pal. XI 383, 1, 2 ³Hν ἄρα καὶ κάνθωσι (pack-asses) τύχη χαλεπή τε καὶ ἐσθλὴ Καὶ Κρόνος ὡρονομεῖ τετραπόδων γένεσιν. οἰκειότητα is thought by Kock to be a corruption of ὡραιότητα in the verse quoted by Plutarch, Mor. 769b (Kock, p. 451), οἰκειότητα δ' ἐμβλέπων ὡλίσθανον.

Fr. 532. τον δε τρόπον αυτής της γαμουμένης μεθ' ης βιώσεται μήτ' εξετάσαι μήτ' ίδειν.

Probably οδν has fallen out between μήτ' and ἰδεῖν.

Fr. 538.

When you wish to know what you really are, look at the tombs.

¹ If it should be thought unlikely that δὲ has got into its position after προσδιατρίβων by an error in the copyist, it would seem possible that the right reading is  $\dot{\delta}$  προσδιατρίβων δὲ κοπάσας ἀπήλασε, 'the man who stays longer tires himself out before he starts on his outward journey (takes his departure).' But ἀπώλεσε seems to agree better with the next verse κακῶς τε γηρῶν ἐνδεής που γίγνεται.

In them lie the dust and bones of the great and wise, men proud of their birth, wealth, or reputation.

κατ' οὐδὲν αὐτοῖς τῶνδ' ἐπήρκεσεν χρόνος.

For χρόνος perhaps we should write ἐπήρκεσ' ἐν χρόνφ: 'and after all, none of these advantages was of any avail to them at the last.'

Fr. 563. σφάττει με, λεπτὸς γίνομ' εὖωχούμενος τὰ σκώμμαθ' οἶα τὰ σοφά τε καὶ στρατηγικά, οἷος δ' ἀλαζών ἐστιν άλιτήριος.

Read τὰ σκώμμαθ', οι ἄσοφά τε κάστρατηγικά.

'The man bores me to death, I am growing lean with the poor jokes he serves up as my meal, so vile, so shallow are they, such utter ignorance of all generalship they betray.' Cic. Att. VIII 16, I Nec uero ille me ducit qui uidetur; quem ego hominem ἀπολιτικώτατον omnium iam ante cognoram, nunc uero etiam ἀστρατηγικώτατον. The person described in the fragm. would appear to be a sort of Pyrgopolinices or Miles Gloriosus. Such a braggart is described as 'showing his cuts and scars' in fr. 562, where the words ἐγὼ μὲν δεικνύω 'Εσποινδακὼs must, I think, be spoken by the soldier who 'points to his scars in good earnest,' not to a parasite who is describing how he 'showed a serious face 'while the braggart was recounting his imaginary exploits (Cobet).

Fr. 688. ἀδικείτω με πλούσιος καὶ μὴ πένης \* ραον φέρειν γὰρ κρειττόνων τυραννίδα.

I suggest that the right reading is άδικεῖν ἵτω με, a Latinism, utinam mihi diues, non pauper, iniuriam oblatum eat.

Fr. 693. ἀπόντι μάλλον εὐχαριστίαν ποίει τοῦ γὰρ παρόντι γίνετ' εὐτονώτερον.

Read either ἐντονώτερον 'too emphatic,' and therefore disagreeable as overdone, or ἐπιπονώτερον. But this latter is somewhat far from the letters of the MSS.

Fr. 709. εὶ γάμος ἦν ὁ σφζων τὴν ἄλλου νόσον νόσον σφζων αὐτὸς ἀποθνήσκει νοσῶν.

lταμός = too forward: lταμῶς is found in Alexis and Euphron (fr. I 25).

Fr. 720. παίδων ἐπ' ἀρότφ γνησίωνε ΗΙΟΝΟΡΕΙ δίδωμι σοὐγὼ τῆν ἐμαυτοῦ θυγατέρα.

The word after  $\gamma\nu\eta\sigma\dot{i}\omega\nu$  is certainly  $\dot{\epsilon}n\lambda$   $\sigma\pi\dot{o}\rho\omega$  or  $\dot{\epsilon}n\lambda$   $\sigma\pi\sigma\rho\dot{a}$ , as Meineke conjectured. And why should this not be added as an explanation of  $\dot{\epsilon}n'$   $\dot{a}\rho\dot{o}\tau\omega$ ? 'for ploughing the soil, for sowing the seed of lawfully-begotten children,' or 'for production of lawfully-begotten children, and engendering of the same.' I see no reason for omitting them as a gloss; they belong to the language of legal formalities, and such forms have a time-honored right of verbiage.

Fr. 939. λυτρωσάμενος τὸν αἰχμάλωτον, ὡς ὁ παρὰ Μενάνδρ $\varphi$  Δημέας τὴν κράτειαν, ἀπῆλθεν.

The name may have been *Echecratia*. In the MSS of Ibis 293 *Echecratides*, amongst other curious corruptions, assumes the form of *Ecratides*; and such losses of one or more syllables in proper names are familiar to every one versed in MSS of Latin and Greek authors.

Fr. 942. Aristides II 73 Dind.: παρὰ τῷ Μενάνδρφ μυρία ἃν εὖροις τοιαῦτα, καὶ γυναῖκας λεγούσας καὶ νεανίσκους.

Kock suggests λοχευούσας for λεγούσας; λεγαινούσας or λαγνευούσας are also possible.

Fr. 1098. ὁ γέλως ἄν μὴ ἢ τοῦ γέλωτος ἄξιος αὐτὸς πέφυκε τοῦ γέλωτος κατάγελως.

Read δ γέλως αν ή μή τοῦ γέλωτος αξιος,

'if the laugh does not deserve to raise a laugh (does not deserve its name in consequence of its absurd or weak character), it is by its own nature a mockery of laughter.'

Apollod. Caryst. fr. 5.

οἶμαί γε \* πῶς γὰρ μᾶλλον ἄν προείλετο Ελλην ἀληθῶς οὖσα λεπομένους ὁρᾶν αὐτοὺς ὑφ' αὐτῶν καὶ καταπίπτοντας νεκρούς, ἐξὸν ίλαροὺς παίζοντας ὑποπεπωκότας αὐλουμένους ωδει;

For ωδει Kock suggests σποδεῖν, A. Palmer ἰδεῖν. May it not be ωδί? The construction is ἐξὸν (ὁρᾶν) ἱλαροὺς . . . αὐλουμένους ωδί, 'listening to flute-players (αὐλουμένους passive) O so jollily.' The ωδί would be accompanied by a gesture.

Anaxipp. fr. 6.

ζωμήρυσιν φέροις · δβελίσκους δώδεκα · κρεάγραν · θυίαν · τυρόκνηστιν †παιδικήν · στελεόν · σκαφίδας τρεῖς · δορίδα · κοπίδας τέτταρας.

I suggest either τυροκνήστις (= τυροκνήστεις) παι, δέκα, Οτ τυροκνήστεις ενδεκα.

Euphron. fr. 6.

καινούς πορίζου †πρός με θεών θεούς, ίνα τούς παλαιούς μή 'πιορκής πολλάκις.

Possibly προσθεωρήσας θεούς.

Machon, fr. 1.

τοῦτ' εἶτε πρῶτοι Μακεδόνες τοῖς 'Αττικοῖς κατέδειξαν ήμιν, είτε πάντες οί θεοί, ούκ οίδα \* πλην έστίν γε μουσικωτάτου τινός.

πλήν ἐστίν γε the best MS of Athenaeus. Kock follows Schweighaeuser in writing οὐκ οίδα · πλην γ' ὅτι μ. τινός. Yet πλην ἐστίν γε has a ring of genuineness not to be gainsaid; either, therefore, it would seem, τινδε should be omitted, or μουσικού take the place of μουσικωτάτου.

Fr. 2. είθ' όπόταν ήδη πάντα συμφωνείν δοκής, είσαγε διὰ πασῶν Νικολάδας Μυκόνιος.

I explain this of the dates called by Pliny Nicolai. H. N. XIII 45 sicciores ex hoc genere nicolai, sed amplitudinis praecipuae, quaterni cubitorum longitudinem efficiunt. The nicolai were a dry kind of the class known as caryota, and of unusual size. The form νικολαίδες would correspond to άδελφίδες, another name for a species of date, whose flavor had a sisterly resemblance to caryotae (Plin. u. s.) They might be called Myconian, as having a bald patch; for Strabo tells us, X 487, that τοὺς φαλακροὺς δέ τενες Μυκονίους καλούσιν ύπο του το πάθος τουτο επιχωριάζειν τη νήσφ. Hence I would change Mukónios to Mukorias. Whether this explanation has been made before I do not know, but it seems at least a plausible one.

Baton, fr. 4.

εὖ γ' ὧ Σιβύνη τὰς νύκτας οὐ καθεύδομεν οὐδ' ἀναγεγράμμεθ' ἀλλὰ καίεται λύχνος καὶ βιβλίον εν ταις χερσί, και φροντίζομεν τί Σόφων καταλέλοιπ' ή τί Σημωνακτίδης.

Bothe has already corrected ἀναγεγράμμεθ' into ἀνατετράμμεθ'. I would complete his emendation by altering  $\epsilon \vec{v} \gamma'$  into  $\epsilon \vec{v} \gamma'$ : 'si non dormimus, at nec pessum dati sumus; sed lucubramus.' ἀνατετράμμεθ' is illustrated by Kock, p. 365: in what sense the cook here uses the word is doubtful: whether of being ruined and therefore unable to sleep, or 'upset' mentally, or (professionally) worsted by an abler artist. For the construction, cf. Dexicrates fr. 1 (Kock, p. 374), εὶ δὲ μεθύω καὶ χιόνα πίνω καὶ μύρον Ἐπίσταμ' ὅτι κράτιστον Αἴγυπτος ποιεῖ, where, however, the sentence breaks off and the apodosis is wanting.

Baton, fr. 5. ἐκ δὲ τοῦ ζῆν παγκάλως ευσωσιαπαντητυχον δώσεις ἐμοί.

So A in Athen. 203; in 279 A gives

εὖ σῶσ ἄπαντας ἢ τυχὸν δ. ἐμοί.

I am dissatisfied with the existing emendations, and venture to believe that ἢ τυχὸν is not likely to have been a corruption of ἀτυχεῖν. At any cost I would retain τυχόν. Possibly the poet wrote

έκ δὲ τοῦ ζῆν παγκάλως εὐκτῶς τε πανταχῆ τυχὸν δώσεις έμοί,

sc. εἶναι ἔχειν τὴν ἡδονὴν 'but from a life of complete happiness and complete satisfaction you will perhaps concede to me we may secure pleasure.' Observe that παγκάλως and πανταχῆ repeat and emphasize the same idea, a life which is happy all round and desirable (εὐκτόν) in every way.

Epinicus fr. 2.

καὶ τῶν ρυτῶν τὰ μέγιστα τῶν ὅντων τρία πίνειν δεήσει τήμερον πρὸς κλεψύδραν κρουνιζόμενον. ἀμφότερα δ' οἰωνίζομαι.

Dobree translated οἰωνίζομαι 'I will bet,' too concisely to be intelligible. Judging from the ordinary use of οἰωνίζεσθαι, the meaning, I suppose, is 'I draw an omen from each of the two acts: (1) from the actual drinking; (2) from the way in which the liquor spurts from the ρ̂υτὸν into the mouth.' If not this, the sense would seem to be 'I make a forecast of both acts,' i. e. I give a guess in advance as to the success each toper will have (1) in drinking, e. g. whether he will drink the whole; (2) in the liquor streaming dextrously into his throat or awkwardly.

Damoxenus, fr. 2.

21 αἱ μεταβολαὶ γὰρ αῗ τε κινήσεις κακὸν ἢλίβατον †ἐστ' ἀνθρώποις ἀλλοιώματα ἐν ταις τροφαίς ποιοῦσι, μανθάνεις; τὸ δὲ ληφθὲν καθ' ὅραν ἀποδίδωσι τὴν χάριν.

In 22  $\hat{\epsilon}\sigma\tau'$  is given by A,  $\tilde{\epsilon}\nu$   $\tau'$  by C and Eustathius 1623, 8. Both appear to me to point in the same direction, i. e. to the separation of the clause ending with  $\hat{\eta}\lambda'\beta_{\alpha\tau\sigma\nu}$  from the clause which follows. For  $\hat{\epsilon}\sigma\tau'$  might represent the omitted verb substantive,  $\tilde{\epsilon}\nu$   $\tau'$  might equally express the connexion of  $\hat{\epsilon}\nu\theta\rho\dot{\omega}\pi\sigma_{01}$ s with what follows, not with what precedes. 'Changes and variations (in the weather and seasons) are a tremendous trouble, and cause alterations in the foods of mankind, do you see?' That is

αί μεταβολαί γὰρ αι τε κινήσεις κακόν ηλίβατον, ἀνθρώποισί τ' ἀλλοιώματα ἐν ταις τροφαίς ποιούσι.

31, 32 should perhaps be divided thus:

Α. χυμός, λέγει Δημόκριτος—Β. οὐδὲν πρᾶγμα τὰ γιγνόμενα. Α. ποιεῖ τὸν φαγόντ' ἀρθριτικόν.

The first speaker is proceeding to enlarge on Democritus' views of the nature of  $\chi \nu \mu \delta s$ , when the other interrupts him, 'never mind what comes of it.' Then the first speaker leaves his high philosophizing and descends to the plain matter-of-fact statement that it is the  $\chi \nu \mu \delta s$  of foods which produces gout in the limbs of the epicure.

Nicomachus, fr. 1.

πολλάς τέχνας λάβοις ἄν ἐνδόξους πάνυ ὅν τὸν μαθεῖν βουλόμενον ὀρθῶς οὐκ ἔνι ταύταις προσελθεῖν εὐθύς ' ἀλλ' ἔμπροσθε δεῖ ζωγραφίας ἦφθαι. ταὐτὰ καὶ μιιγειρικῆς πρότερον μαθεῖν δεῖ τῆς τέχνης ἐτέρας τέχνας.

What underlies the corrupt ζωγραφίας ἡφθαι it is now impossible to guess. Probably a considerable number of verses are lost. At least it seems difficult to imagine how either painting could be

introduced as a single representative of all the requisite accessory arts, or how ἄλλων (ἐτέρων) προῆφθαι (Kock) could have assumed so remote a modification as ζωγραφίας ἡφθαι.

34-39. τοις δή τοιούτοις βρώμασιν τὰ φάρμακα
35 εὖρητ' ἐκείθεν, μεταφορὰ δ' ἐστὶν τέχνης
ήδη τὸ μετὰ νοῦ καὶ τὸ συμμέτρως ἐμὸν
περὶ τακτικής ἔκαστα ποῦ τεθήσεται
ἀριθμῷ τὸ πλήθος εἰδέναι μαγειρικής
οὐδεὶς ἔτερός σοι πρὸς ἐμὲ καὶ γραφήσεται.

One thing in this passage seems to me certain, that  $\hat{\epsilon}\mu\hat{\delta}\nu$  is a corruption of  $\hat{\epsilon}\mu\hat{\epsilon}\hat{\nu}$  'the art of vomiting in an intelligent and graceful way,' which to the Greeks, and far more to the gluttonous Romans, was one of the most essential accomplishments in a diner-out. See the Satirae of Petronius. It is, I think, not absolutely beyond doubt that the rest of the passage is wrongly transmitted, or that a lacuna need be assumed after 36. Suppose it punctuated thus:

τοις δή τοιούτοις βρώμασιν τὰ φάρμακα εξρητ' ἐκείθεν, μεταφορὰ δ' ἐστὶν τέχνης. ήδη τὸ μετὰ νοῦ καὶ τὸ συμμέτρως ἐμεῖν. περὶ τακτικής—ἔκαστα ποῦ τεθήσεται. ἀριθμῷ τὸ πλήθος εἰδέναι ' μαγειρικής οὐδεὶς ἔτερός σοι πρὸς ἐμὲ καὶ γραφήσεται.

Huiusmodi cibis remedia inuenta sunt ex medicina, mutatione facta artium (sc. ex arte coquinaria ad artem medici). Continuo ut ratione quis uomat et decenter (medicorum artis est): arti  $\pi\epsilon\rho$ 1 taktik $\eta$ 5 proprium est scire ubi singula ponenda sint: ab numeris uenit scire quantum cuiuscumque rei sumendum sit: ut uno uerbo omnia exsequar, prae me nemo alius a te in albo inscribetur peritorum rei coquinariae.

Adespot. 662.

οὶ κλεαγόπται λέγεται δὲ καὶ κλέπται. The corrupt κλεαγόπται may have been κληδοκόπται, or possibly κληδαγροκόπται, if we may assume a form κληδάγρα like βαλανάγρα.

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### II.—THE SENTENCE-QUESTION IN PLAUTUS AND TERENCE.

Concluding Paper.

G. QUESTIONS WITHOUT A PARTICLE HAVING THE VERB NEAR THE BEGINNING.

In the preceding divisions have been given all the varieties of question which are marked by a distinct relation to the preceding sentence or by the presence of some single word having interrogative or partially interrogative functions. The questions which remain can be distinguished only by peculiarities of order.

For an exhaustive classification it would no doubt be necessary to consider all possible variations from the so-called normal order, especially in the case of pronouns, personal and demonstrative. But the instances would be few in number and the results slight, and I have thought it sufficient to make two divisions according as the verb does or does not retain its normal position at the end of the sentence. A third division might be made of those sentences which consist only of the verb, but most of these have already been given under IV C, rogas, negas, etc.

Under the head of sentences in which the verb is near the beginning are included all with at, sed, etc., and those in which a subordinate clause precedes the main clause, if it seems clear that the questioning begins only with the main clause. Absolute precision is impossible, e. g. Eun. 705 and 951 are classed here.

As these sentences are similar, except for the absence of the particle, to those in which *ne* is appended to the verb, a comparison of the two kinds may be expected to shed light upon the uses of *ne*, and perhaps upon the origin of the interrogative sentence.

Indic. pres., 1st pers. Andr. 423, sum verus? is the only case of sum. Eugraph. seems to take it as a declarative sentence (id est 'vera dico'), like the Engl. "I told you so!" As a question it is parallel to Rud. 865, sumne ibi? with strong nonne effect. Eun. 532, dico ego mi insidias fieri? refers back to 507 ff. and means "Am I not right in saying that they are plotting against me?" That is, it has a distinct nonne effect; cf. Amph. 433, vincon

argumentis, te non esse Sosiam? In other passages the pres. has fut. sense: Most. 774, eon? voco huc hominem? || i voca, is really only one question, eon, voco; Poen. 1224, pergo etiam temptare? is confused in the MSS and the text is entirely uncertain; Most. 848, ergo eo igitur sine perductore? || i, licet, is also confused and is generally printed with a period; Ph. 737, quid ago? || . . . || adeo, maneo, dum haec quae loquitur magis cognosco? (MSS exc. A have adeon an). With ne there are six cases parallel to these. Cist. 288 Uss., And. 500 Speng. I should print with a period.

Pl. [3], Ter. 2 [3].

Indic. pres., 2d pers., in alphabetical order. Hec. 458, advenis modo? "Just come?" is a questioning comment, not a question; cf. Heaut. 883. Amph. 561, audes mihi praedicare id, domi te esse nunc, qui hic ades? is similar to rogas. Pers. 214, sed quid tu? confitere, ut te autumo? is a genuine question, "But what about you? Do you confess ...?" Also Heaut. 1015 Dz. Eun. 705, age nunc, bellua, credis huic quod dicat? is precisely like the cases of credin, with the same suggestion of num effect. Hec. 803, adulescens, dic dum quaeso, es tu Myconius? would be similar to esne Men. 1109, but the vs. is imperfect; tun es, an early conjecture, is generally adopted. Trin. 318, exprobras, bene quod fecisti? would be parallel to rogas, but I should read quid exprobras with Bx. and MSS. Ps. 488, fatere? dic, is similar to Capt. 317, sed faterin . . .? but there is no necessity for changing to faterin, as proposed by Becker, 132; cf. confitere above. Heaut. 765, vah, gloriare evenisse ex sententia? is not a question, but like rogas. Also Heaut. 982, inrides in re tanta neque me consilio quicquam adiuvas? Poen. 1103, intellegis? at the end of a long explanation, cf. tenesne, iam tenes, tenes, is a question, but with some slight impv. effect. Heaut. 537, eho, quaeso, laudas, qui eros fallunt? is like rogas. Pers. 357, quid? metuis ne te vendam? Heaut. 1017, quid? metuis ne ...? are influenced by quid? and are exclamatory rather than interrogative. So also Aul. 720, nescis? (though this may be a repetition), And. 791, eho inepta, nescis quid sit actum? and Andr. 348, obtundis, tam etsi intellego? (Speng. uses period). Ps. 85, sed potes nunc mutuam drachumam mihi unam dare, . . .? is precisely parallel to potin with the infin. Pers. 733, redis tu tandem? is like advenis modo? above. Pers. 379, scis nam tibi quae praecepi? Eun. 952, 1035, 1036 (twice), Heaut. 529 and Ad. 215 are all parallel to corresponding forms with scin. In Heaut. 529,

scis esse factum ut dico? the nonne effect is produced by ut dico. Ps. 216 (Lor. Goetz, period), Heaut. 700, Ph. 214, tenes? are like tenesne, Heaut. 778. Ps. 1157, vides, iam die (diem Lor.) multum esse? is parallel to viden with infin. having nonne effect. Most. 1105, aspicedum contra me. || aspexi. || vides? || video is not quite clear without the stage "business," but is apparently exclamatory. Andr. 898, impera. vis me uxorem ducere? hanc vis mittere? ut potero, feram; the corresponding forms with vin imply an offer of service, these are more nearly neutral, and so have the effect of a protasis with feram for apodosis.

Pl. 12 [13], Ter. 19 [20].

Indic. pres. 3d pers. Ad. 924, iubet frater? These are the first words of a scene and are probably meant as a repetition of words supposed to have been spoken off the stage. Ph. 352, negat Phanium esse hanc sibi cognatam Demipho? hanc Demipho negat esse cognatam? These are both exclamatory and similar to repetitions. Men. 923, dic mihi hoc: solent tibi umquam oculi duri fieri? and Poen. 755, valent apud te quos volo? are unemotional questions for information, as are two cases of licet, Curc. 621 and Mil. 1329, and one of placet, Ad. 736. Rud. 803, licet sallem istas mi appellare? I should punctuate with period because of saltem.

In Amph. 995, amat? sapit, Eun. 252, negat quis? nego: ait? aio, the questions stand for protases and may be punctuated amat: sapit. The usage is well known.

Instances of est (sunt) are Aul. 357, Men. 1107 (twice), Merc. 563, Poen. 165, 253 (adsunt), Ad. 556, 778, And. 789. In St. 186, promitte vero: ne gravare: est commodum? (so Rit. Goetz) I should prefer a period. All these are regular questions, absolutely the same as similar forms with estne; cf. e. g. Heaut. 454, estne ea intus? with And. 789, est Simo intus?

Pl. 11 [13], Ter. 8.

Indic. imps. Ad. 693, quid? credchas dormienti haec tibi confecturos deos? Ph. 902, verebamini ne id non facerem quod recepissem semel? (Dz. an rebamini, v. Krit. Anh.) Both are exclamatory.

Ter. 2.

Indic. fut. Truc. 206, ibo igitur intro? || quippini? is parallel to Mil. 1242, adibon; both are unusual because of the tense. Hec. 672, quid dixti? eho, an non alemus, Pamphile? prodemus, quaeso, potius? is exclamatory, as if repeated from a previous

speech. Curc. 73, Ad. 192 are exclamatory and properly future. On obtundes? or obtundis? Ph. 515, see under IV C.

Pl. 2, Ter. 2 [3].

Indic. perf. In the 1st person only Cas. V 4, 18, beside those already given under IV B. In the 2d pers. the only clear cases are Mil. 829, prompsisti tu vinum? Poen. 723, vidistis leno quom aurum accepit? and Rud. 378, cavistis ergo tu atque erus ne abiret, ...? In other cases the MSS vary. Most. 594, Epid. 539, 554, Cist. III 15 are entirely uncertain. In Aul. 171, And. 975, Eun. 692, Heaut. 684, 731 the metrical probabilities favor the forms without ne; in Mil. 556 A has vidisti, and so Bx. Lor. In spite of the uncertainty (see above I, A, ne with the perf. indic.), it is clear that the forms without ne are regular questions; indeed, the uncertainty itself shows that there is no difference in sense between the questions with ne and those without ne. In the 3d pers. Heaut. 978, abiit? is exclamatory, recognizing a fact, not asking a question. Hec. 527, peperit filia? hem, taces? is usually printed with colon; I can see no reason why a question mark should not be used. Some other cases have been given under IV B.

Pl. 6, Ter. 6.

Plupf. Eun. 429 is exclamatory.

Periphrastic forms are Ad. 796, dictum hoc inter nos fuit . . ? responde, And. 665, factum hoc est, Dave? || factum; these are regular questions, though the first has nonne effect. And. 751, dictura es quod rogo? has impv. force, but see above I. A, ne with fut. ptc. Rud. 982, quid ais, . . . ? ausu's etiam conparare vidulum cum piscibus? (Seyffert, Sch., ausis). Pl. 1, Ter. 3.

Subjunctive pres. Men. 539, dicam curare? Bacch. 65 ff., adulescens homo penetrem me huiusmodi in palaestram, ...? Ad. 625, nunc quid faciam? dicam fratris esse hanc? And. 640, Eun. 49, Ph. 186, quid remedium inveniam ...? loquarne? incendam: taceam? instigem: purgem me? laterem lavem. This last has the force of a condition. In the 2d pers. Asin. 878, possis, si forte ... videas, cognoscere? cf. Merc. 518, possin, with the same sense. Asin. 814, 815. Impf. Ad. 395; Wag. Fleck. Dz. insert num. All these have precise parallels with ne.

Pl. 5, Ter. 5 [6].

Summing these up it appears, in the first place, that about onethird, including most of the sentences which consist of the verb alone, are not properly interrogative, but exclamatory, and closely related to repetitions and to rogas? and negas? So advenis modo? means "Just come, have you?" not "Have you just come?" abiit? means "He's gone?" cf. satin abiit? and quid? metuis...? is "What! you're afraid that...?" The large preponderance of cases from Ter. is partly due to the fact that he uses exclamations (cf. rogas, rogilas) more frequently than Pl. These exclamations have few parallels among questions with ne appended to the verb.

In the second place, of the cases which have parallels in questions with ne, nearly all are unemotional questions, asked for information. These comprise about half of the whole number, and the correspondence between them and forms with ne is so close as to make it plain that ne is not at all necessary to an unemotional question. Pl. could say est or estne without difference of meaning. Nor is ne essential in all idiomatic and emotional forms of question; the effect of num is given without it (credis = credin), and the effect of nonne in about half a dozen cases. Of impv. questions, however, there are no clear cases, and there are comparatively few idioms, like those with ain, audin, scin, viden; the few cases that do occur are of the simplest sort. While, therefore, ne is not essential to the genuine question nor even to some kinds of idiom, it appears that the widest development of idiomatic questions is to be found only in connection with ne. But because of the small number of questions without ne this conclusion should not be pushed too far.

#### H. SENTENCES HAVING THE VERB NEAR THE END.

Under this head are placed also the few cases in which the verb is neither at the beginning nor at the end, for which it has not seemed necessary to make separate classes.

So far as these sentences correspond to questions with ne, given in the various sub-classes I. B-K, the parallels will be pointed out. Of the sentences which have no parallels with ne, which are too numerous to be given in full, sufficient illustrations will be given.

Indic. pres. 1st pers. And. 906, Andrium ego Critonem video? certe is est, corresponds in sense to videon in soliloquy. Heaut. 579, Clitipho, haec ego praecipio tibi? is parallel to haecine, e. g. Most. 25 f., with rejecting effect. There is no case parallel to Ph. 812, hanc igitur mittimus? And. 921, ego istaec moveo aut curo? Eun. 179 (and Hec. 875 without verb) are exactly like Ph. 999, egon timeo? i. e. they repeat and reject an idea already suggested. Merc. 172, tandem indignus videor? if the text is correct, is

exclamatory, as is Andr. 500, inrideor? which only Speng. prints as question. Amph. 391, Cas. V 4, 28, tuae fidei credo? || meae, are hesitating declarative sentences, "I trust to your honor?" not as Uss. says, equivalent to credamne, and entirely different from And. 497.

Pl. 3, Ter. 6.

Pres. indic., 2d pers. Ad. 596, id quia non est a me factum, agis gratias? has some questioning effect, due perhaps to the fact that the verb stands first in the main clause. Ph. 985, rape hunc. || sic agitis? is exclamatory and rejecting, but has many parallels with ne, e. g. Ad. 128, Eun. 99, sicine agis? Men. 1108, patrem fuisse Moschum tibi ais? and And. 908 do not differ greatly from ain with infin. Men. 741 (attines) is exclamatory. Asin. 485 (see above under ain), Men. 514, 924, Rud. 1099, Trin. 695, Hec. 675, And. 545, all with censes, are like censen in having a rejecting force which comes partly from the sense of censeo, but differ from censen in being less distinctly interrogative; cf. also And. 505. Eun. 897 (cogitas) is like censes. Capt. 556, Trin. 649, Ad. 748, Eun. 245, Heaut. 729, all with credis, have an infin. and exclamatory effect, except Capt. 556, which corresponds pretty closely to Eun. 812, credin? with interrogative force. Ps. 1315, at negabas daturum esse te mihi: tamen das? is really declarative, with slight interrogative inflection. All cases of dan have impv. effect. Hec. 524, . . . mi vir || vir ego tuos sim? tu virum me aut hominem deputas adeo esse? is exclamatory and has parallels with tun. Men. 1139, hanc tu dicis, frater, pallam, ...? (Fleck. Rit. hancine, which would be equally correct in sense), Merc. 912, Trin. 466, Heaut. 596, 888, all with dicis, are declarative with slight questioning or exclamatory inflection; dicisne, used only twice, is impv. Ad. 104, tu nunc tibi id laudi ducis, quod tum fecisti inopia? is exclamatory, like rogas. And. 321, hodie uxorem ducis? | aiunt, is almost declarative, with faint questioning inflection. With es, Men. 1078, quae haec fabulast? tu's Menaechmus? is an exclamatory repetition; Trin. 987, ipsus es? and Poen. 866, malus es? are questioning; Rud. 1305 is so nearly declarative that it might equally well be printed with a period; Trin. 635, tu mihi es melior quam egomet mihi? (Rit.3 tun) has been given under tun, but in either case it would be exclamatory. I should read tu with Bx., but without accepting his reason (Krit. Anh.), "da die energische Frage ohne ne für den Ausdruck des Unwillens viel angemessener ist." Ad. 167, ceterum hoc nili facis? is exclamatory. Umpf. uses a period.

Ad. 769, ohe iam: tu verba fundis hic sapientia? is exclamatory. Heaut. 718, tantum sat habes? is exclamatory, not questioning like satin habes, si. Asin. 579, hoc quod rogo responde. | rogita quod vis. || argenti viginti minas habes nunc? (so Müll., Goetz. MSS habesne). The position of habesne is without a parallel in Pl., but Müller's reading is not at all satisfying; habes nunc would be almost a declarative sentence, while the context calls for a formal and unemotional question, like those with haben. Pers. 850, inrides, and Ad. 135, irascere, are like rogas. Heaut. 315, hoc vide: in mea vita tu tibi is quaesitum, scelus? is exclamatory; in (isne) has impv. force. Asin. 593, salve. | salvere me iubes, quoi tu abiens adfers morbum? usually printed with period, is like rogas, as is Eun. 1053, laudas. Merc. 160, dormientis spectatores metuis ne ex somno excites? is half-declarative. Ps. 442, mirare, And. 764, nescis, Most. 16, obiectas, Rud. 876, opsecras (Vulg. Sch. with period), Asin. 189, Cist. Frag. IX, Ben., postulas, Truc. 413, procuras (Sch. prints as exclamation) are all either exclamatory or declarative. Merc. 654, cedo . . . amorem te hic relicturum putas? has considerable questioning force, due probably to cedo. Heaut. 741, dignam me putas . . .? Amph. 284, are like censes. Eun. 426, lepus tute es : pulpamentum quaeris? might as well be declarative; cf. Wagner's note. Amph. 816, quaeris, is exactly like rogas. Asin. 398, tu id nunc refers? is like cases with tun, expressing rejection. Hec. 706, Ph. 684, respondes, are like taces, rogas. Aul. 214, Poen. 724, Heaut. 181, scis (scitis), differ from scin in that they take the knowledge for granted and are only slightly interrogative. In Merc. 719, sic tu me temptas sciens? there is less emphasis upon sic than in questions with sicine, but the rejecting force is the same. Cist. Frag. II Ben., quid? tuam times amicam . . .? and Heaut. 910, quid? istuc times . . .? are exclamatory. Ad. 233, nunc demum venis? is partially declarative. Ph. 60, verere, is like metuis, times and other verbs of emotion. With vis the case is less clear. Men. 1155, ergo nunc iam vis conclamari auctionem fore? Rud. 1074, And. 708 all have questioning force, and in all vis precedes the dependent verb, infin. or subjunct. So also in Hec. 787, where A has . . . ob eam rem. || vin ergo intro eam? the other MSS || ob eam rem vis ergo intro eam? which latter I believe to be correct. Heaut. 87, scire hoc vis? takes up fac me ut sciam of 84, and has very little questioning force. Pers. 681, quod te dignumst, me dignum esse vis? is exclamatory and rejecting. Most. 262, scita's tu quidem. nova pictura interpolare vis opus lepidissumum? is so clearly declarative that it might better have a period. Mil. 68 (I 1, 38) and Ps. 47 have been given above. Men. 848, votas, is like rogas, and Ritschl's conj. men is unnecessary. Ps. 826, utere, is repudiating, with some slight questioning force from quid tu?

In 2d pers. Pl. 40, Ter. 32.

In the cases which follow it is not necessary to do more than indicate the general group, questioning, exclamatory or declarative, to which the sentence seems most nearly allied, and even this general grouping cannot be precise, since these three tenden-

cies may all appear in a single sentence.

In the 3d pers. pres. indic. Ad. 246, omnes dentes labefecit, . . .: etiam insuper defraudat? is the nearest representative of the interrogation. Five with videtur, Ba. 854, Ps. 472, Rud. 983, 1230, Ph. 1033, and Ad. 736, placet, are exclamatory and rejecting. Curc. 572, Aul. 720, Hec. 500 (Wag. with period), and Merc. 714 are declarative with slight questioning or exclamatory force. In Merc. 714 a period would express the sense equally well. Merc. 948, Truc. 585, Cas. 353 Gepp. are entirely uncertain. Eun. 733 is given under multon, Ps. 1002, And. 949 under non.

Cases with est are more frequent, and about half have an introductory phrase or semi-parenthetic verb like quaeso, opsecro. Interrogative are Amph. 774, salvom signumst? || inspice. || recte, Ba. 718, nulla, Epid. 643, Rud. 284, 1054. The exclamatory sentences are mainly repetitions, Ad. 950, . . . paulum . . . || paulum id autemst? Merc. 534, 974, Most. 628, Pers. 491, Rud. 740, 1399, And. 875; these are repetitions with est added. Ad. 707 is like hocine; Hec. 527 like istucine; Bacch. 616, Rud. 960, Heaut. 607 have slight interrogative force, and so resemble adjectives with ne. Ps. 294 (2), Rud. 1113, Ad. 388, Heaut. 583 are rejecting exclamations. Most. 444, sed quid hoc? occlusa ianuast interdius? is usually printed with period, but is like other partially declarative sentences. So also Eun. 1040.

Pl. 24, Ter. 12.

Indic impf. Eun. 155, aut ego nescibam quorsum tu ires? (So Umpf. at, with period, Bent. Wag. Dz.) This is an ironical declarative sentence, and approaches a question, though not closely enough to warrant the interrogative sign. Men. 1122, dic mihi: uno nomine ambo eratis? is clearly interrogative. Men. 625, Pers. 686, Ad. 901, Ph. 858 are exclamatory. Heaut. 907, hem, Clinia haec fieri videbat? is a hesitating assertion. Pl. 3, Ter. 3 [4].

Indic. fut. Mil. 1021, quid ego? hic astabo . . .? Rud. 658, Curc. 204 are rejecting exclamations. Rud. 1270 has more questioning force. In 2d pers. Capt. 892, Merc. 649, Eun. 690, Hec. 232 are strongly repudiating. Aul. 773, 774 are in a series of questions which demand a promise rather than ask for a reply. They are imperative futures with slight interrogative inflection. In Eun. 536 the MSS favor malam rem hinc ibis? with impv. effect; this is without parallel, but Ter. shows considerable variety in impv. questions. In the 3d pers. Poen. 729, quid si . . . pultem? || censeo. || si pultem, non recludet? is equivalent to quid si pullem atque ille non recludet? Merc. 458, 459, Eun. 638 are exclamatory. In Cas. III 5, 38 ne is called for by the metre. Men. 792, . . . ibi potat. || tua quidem ille causa potabit minus, . . .? is exactly like Capt. 845, Pers. 747, and Rit. has tuan here also; but ne is not at all necessary to the sense.

Pl. 12, Ter. 4.

Indic. perf. Men. 394 is exclamatory and is in sense a repetition; Cas. V 4, 16, ego istuc feci? is an exclamation with precisely the same sense as egon. Asin. 410, hodie salvere iussi Libanum libertum? iam manu emissust? is an ironical assertion with slight interrogative force. Eun. 420, quid illud, Gnatho, quo pacto Rhodium tetigerim in convivio, numquam tibi dixi? involves an anacoluthon, and the strong interrogative force is due to that fact.

Indic. perf. 2d pers. Interrogative effect is somewhat distinct in Epid. 596 (with quid), Mil. 1219 (with opsecro), Poen. 759, Heaut. 884 (both with dic mihi), Heaut. 830. On Andr. 742 see tun; for Ph. 577 see perf. with ne. The following are repudiating exclamations: Amph. 725 (cf. 717), Asin. 926, Capt. 717, Pers. 798, Rud. 993, Trin. 138, Eun. 241, Heaut. 685, Ph. 467. The declarative force is prominent in Asin. 252 f. (only Uss. prints as question), Asin. 416, Most. 1010 (both of these might as well have a period, since the interrogative effect is barely perceptible), Poen. 591, And. 586. Cist. II 3, 39 is entirely confused.

In the 3d pers. Asin. 432, eho, Coriscus pro vectura olivi rem soluit? || soluit, 441, Dromo mercedem rettulit? are interrogative, but they have an intentionally peremptory tone, as from a superior to an inferior; cf. 444, where rettulitne is at the end of the sentence. Bacch. 502 is equivalent to a condition. Mil. 1043, And.

Other cases where the omission of ne appears to be associated with an urgent and peremptory tone are And. 665, factum hoc est, Dave? 751, dic-

241 are exclamations. Most. 977, 978, Pers. 131 are assertions which get a slight interrogative tone from the context.

Pl. 23, Ter. 8.

Indic. plupf. only in Ad. 465, noras, with declarative force.

Ter. 1.

Indic. fut. pf. Truc. 547, where Speng. uses period. Pl. 1.
Compound forms are all in the perfect. Rud. 187 is exclamatory, but the text is somewhat uncertain. St. 372, hem, quid?
Epignomum elocutu's? is like ais, referring to what has just been said. Heaut. 522, faceta haec meretrix. || sane. || idem visast tibi? "You think so too?" has as much questioning force as any; the rest are clearly exclamatory or declarative, Cist. II 1, 16, Epid. 650 (quid?), Heaut. 580, Merc. 976, Asin. 330, Men. 611, Capt. 568, Ps. 631; in the last four I should use a period.

Pl. 9, Ter. 2.

With the subjunctive a dependent infin. is rarely used, and the sentences are for the most part so short that the position of the verb cannot be expected to have much influence upon the meaning.

Subj. pres., 1st pers. Bacch. 903, hodie exigam aurum hoc? || exige, and Trin. 59, vin conmutemus? tuam ego ducam et tu meam? are the only cases which have any questioning force. The rest are all exclamatory and rejecting, like egone with the pres. subj. They are Asin. 506 (Goetz ubi), Aul. 45, Capt. 139 (Sch. egone), Pers. 26, Poen. 352, 730, Ps. 318, St. 297, And. 231, Eun. 798, Heaut. 131, 413, Hec. 434, Ph. 419, 1022.

With the 2d pers. all cases are exclamatory and correspond to tun with subjunct. They are Asin. 489, 812 (?), Merc. 575, And. 619, Eun. 460, Hec. 589.

With the 3d pers., all exclamatory, Curc. 193, Truc. 754, Heaut. 128 ff., Ph. 813. Also Hec. 878, Dz.; Um. an.

In the impf. all are exclamatory, and repeat with more or less of distinctness a suggestion already expressed: Most. 183, Rud. 842 (Sch. quid ego, etc., without any mark after quid), Truc. 625. Truc. 501 is utterly confused; Aul. 286 should have a period; Trin. 957, where the MSS have mihi, Rit. Bx. mihin concrederet, has been placed under mihin, I. B, because there is no precise

tura es quod rogo? Mil. 829, prompsisti tu illi vinum? 833, neque tu bibisti? I have noted no cases exactly like those in the Asin., and this suggestion may be fanciful, but an assertive form of question might easily be rudely and harshly employed.

parallel without ne, yet I greatly doubt whether ne is at all necessary. A few of these cases have been given above, IV B and D. Pl. 17, Ter. 13.

As has been remarked, these sentences exhibit three tendencies. They are (a) declarative sentences with slight interrogative inflection, (b) exclamations, mostly with repudiating effect, or (c) questions like those in the preceding class. These are not different kinds of questions, but merely different uses to which this one kind of sentence may be put. Of the declarative sentences there are about 40 cases. They are nothing more than ordinary declarations, made with some hesitation, which was no doubt expressed by the voice, but was not sufficiently strong or not sufficiently concentrated upon any single word to bring about a change from the normal position of the verb in a declarative sentence. In fact, as in sentences with scilicet, fortasse or a parenthetic credo (see IV A), the hesitation was not about any single word, but about the correctness of the statement as a whole. The exclamations, which include about 140 of the 200 cases, are like the other kinds of exclamatory sentence already given and express doubt or wonder or absolute incredulity by repeating with exclamatory inflection the statement which has excited the emotion. In most cases they repudiate the statement. Even in the third use, in the 20 or 25 cases which most nearly approach a real interrogation, something of declarative or exclamatory effect generally appears, indicating that these are essentially like the other uses, and differ from them less widely than they do from sentences in which the inflection has been strong enough to bring the verb to the first place in the sentence. In most cases, also, the interrogation is partly expressed by quaeso, dic, opsecro and similar words, making the question semi-indirect.

In general, therefore, there is in questions which have the verb at or near the end a correspondence between form and function; they are declarative sentences with exclamatory inflection, or with a questioning inflection too slight to bring about a departure from the declarative order.

#### V.—QUESTIONS WITH ut AND WITH THE INFINITIVE.

Questions with ut interrogative and the indic. are merely a variety of the quis-question, and of these I have made no lists. Apparently, in passing over these, I have omitted also cases of ut with the subjunct, which should have been noted for the sake

of comparison with egon ut sentences, and I fear that the following list is imperfect. Amph. 694, quid enim censes? te ut deludam contra, . . .? Trin. 750, ut ego nunc adulescenti thensaurum indicem . . .? Cist. IV 1, 10, And. 618, oh, tibi ego ut credam, furcifer? Heaut. 1050, mea bona ut dem Bacchidi dono sciens? In 2d pers. pres., Poen. 316, perf. Men. 683, 3d pers. pres. Ad. 238, Ph. 669, perf. Most. 14 (L²), 1017, Ad. 530, Heaut. 954, Hec. 138 f. Most. 1172 is purely conjectural. Ad. 655 repeats 654.

Questions or exclamations with the infin. have been partly given under *hicine*, *itane* and other words, but are repeated here in order to bring all infin. questions together.

With adeon followed by an ut-clause, Bacch. 283, adeon me fuisse fungum ut qui illi crederem . . .? And. 245, Eun. 225, Heaut. 980, Hec. 532, Ph. 153, 497, 499. In And. 879 all MSS have adeon against the metre, generally corrected to adeo; it will be seen from cases below that there is nothing remarkable in the omission of ne.

With itane, Ph. 810, itan parvam mihi fidem esse apud te? Ph. 466. With ita, Heaut. 503.

With sicine, Curc. 589, Pers. 42, And. 689; with sic, Ph. 528 U. With some form of hicine, Asin. 226, haecine te esse oblitum...? Curc. 694 (for Curc. 200 see I. H. e), Mil. 626, Ps. 202, Truc. 537, 933, Ad. 237, 390, 408, 611, Eun. 644, Heaut. 401. The only cases without ne which at all correspond to these are Ph. 503, ... tum hoc esse mihi obiectum malum? and Hec. 613, hinc abire matrem? minume. (There is no case of hincine.)

Other pronominal forms are istacine Aul. 746, illan (abl.) Ad. 448, quemquamne Ad. 38, Heaut. 912, neminemne Eun. 553, nosne Hec. 645, ten Ph. 339 (cf. Ps. 371), meamne Mil. 488, nullane And. 425, tantamne And. 253, tantane Ph. 977. Also numquamne (adv.) Eun. 360. Without ne, Capt. 783, ad illum modum sublitum os esse mi hodie? Also with tantum, tantam, And. 870, Heaut. 630, Ph. 884; in Heaut. 92, hui, tam gravis hos, quaeso? the infin. is to be supplied.

With nilne, And. 716; with nil, Ph. 1042.

With non (nonne does not occur with the infin.), Trin. 1046, non hoc puplice animadvorti? Cas. I 1, 1, Hec. 227, Ph. 231, 232, 978, Ad. 562, 629, Dz.

With magistron Bacch. 151, servon And. 609.

The other cases without ne are Asin. 127, which may be a

continuation of the preceding question, Aul. 338, tibi recte facere? Curc. 623, servom antestari? Eun. 391, magnas vero agere gratias Thais mihi? This appears to be a repetition of a preceding infin. which Gnatho had used just before the speakers came upon the stage. Heaut. 94 is a repetition in infin.

With ne, Pl. 12, Ter. 28. Without ne, Pl. 6, Ter. 18.

The use of the infin. in exclamations calls for no comment, but it may be noted that the greater number of these exclamations are associated with special words, adeo, ita, sic, hic and other demonstratives and the negative. This points to a close relationship to the forms given under I. B. Also, while ne is more often used than omitted, there is no form of question, except that with non, which has not a moderately close parallel without ne.

#### VI.—An AND DISJUNCTIVE QUESTIONS.1

The received doctrine concerning an is thus summarized by Schmalz, Syntax, p. 299: "Unstreitig die wichtigste Fragepartikel ist an; im vollständig ausgesprochenen disjunktiven Fragesatze leitet es, wie wir gesehen, den zweiten Teil der Frage ein. Aber wie wir nicht in vollständigen Syllogismen sprechen, sondern eine oder die andere Prämisse unterdrücken, so genügt oft auchwie oben bei utrum bemerkt—ein Teil der disjunktiven Frage, in der Regel der zweite. Und so steht an scheinbar in einer einfachen Frage. Dieser Gebrauch findet sich schon bei den Komikern, hat aber seine höchste Ausbildung in der Sprache Ciceros erreicht."

For reasons which will be given later, and especially because a prejudgment of the case may be thus avoided, I shall give first the simple questions with an, those which are commonly regarded as the second part of an incomplete disjunctive question, and afterward the complete questions with utrum—an. The connection between an and an, and the derivation of both from a pronomi-

It was not until after the following pages were in the hands of the Editor of this Journal that I obtained the dissertation of P. Hinze, de an partic. ap. prisc. script. Lat. vi et usu, Halle, 1887, also as program, Brandenburg, 1887. Hinze classifies the examples according to the presence or absence of eho, autem, etc., and includes the indirect questions, thereby adding considerably to the weight of the argument. But in the main his classification and results anticipate what is given here. I have left my own work as it was written, with the addition of a note or two, partly for the sake of completeness, partly in the hope of reaching a different circle of readers.

nal stem an, "that" or "the other, the second," seems to be generally accepted, and, in accordance with this etymology and with the actual usage in Latin, the relation between the an-question and the preceding sentence is made the basis of the classification.

(a). The question with an is at the beginning of a speech and refers back to what has been said by the previous speaker.

In these cases the leading verb of the preceding sentence is never repeated without change in the an-question. (For Bacch. 1162 see below.) If the idea of the leading verb is repeated, it is always with some change of phrase, and this change seems to be intentional and to be essential in a question with an. Generally, however, the idea which is taken up and questioned is a subordinate one in the preceding sentence.

The idea of the main verb is repeated with change of phrase in Mil. 822, sorbet dormiens . . . || quid 'sorbet'? || illud stertit volui dicere . . . || eho, an dormit Sceledrus intus? Most. 454, paene confregi . . . foris. || eho, an tu tetigisti has aedis?

In most cases some secondary idea is questioned. Asin. 837, credam..., si te hilarum videro. || an tu me tristem putas? Mil. 419,... si quidem east. || an dubium id tibist eam esse hanc? Ps. 309, te vivom vellem. || eho, an iam mortuost?

The other cases, differing in no essential particular from these, are Amph. 745, 773, 964, Bacch. 120, 143, 200, Epid. 506, Merc. 393, Mil. 840, Most. 1083, Pers. 855, Poen. 334, 991, 1067, 1136, 1227, Ps. 314, 851, 853, 872, 1161, 1172, Rud. 578 (1274 given below), St. 34, 246, Trin. 371, 637, 934, 942, 943, Truc. 141, 165, Ad. 128, 389, 672, And. 500, 784 [possibly ain tu haecomnia?], Eun. 382, 604, 679, 733, Heaut. 81, 911, 990, 1057, Ph. 235, 259, 626, 902, 1009.

Also an quid, Asin. 717, Merc. 145, Ps. 29, Ad. 468, an quippiam, Cas. III 5, 38. In Trin. 1018 ff., because of the long intervening clauses, a question beginning with an is renewed with eosne.

The following are semi-indirect, i. e. they depend upon or contain dic, opsecro, quaeso: Asin. 894, Cist. I 1, 70, II 3, 22, Merc. 145, 538, Most. 519, Poen. 475, Ps. 29, Rud. 351, Trin. 986, Eun. 963.

With non, Bacch. 121, an deus est ullus Suavisaviatio? || an non putasti esse umquam? Mil. 301, Poen. 490, Ps. 969, Ad. 136, And. 766, 781, 807, Eun. 959, Hec. 100. In Poen. 490 non is separated from an, and there is no resemblance in any of the

passages from Pl. to an non in the second half of a disjunctive question; in the more numerous Ter. passages the verb is sometimes repeated and the questions are like the common an non use.

All the conditions of the use of an are satisfied in Most. 178 (MSS omit), Poen. 533 (MSS at, ad); in Mil. 217 the text is confused and an is unlikely; in Trin. 922 Spengel's emendation (v. Bx.3) is at least as good as anything. In Ps. 472 I should retain iam of the MSS, but an (Lor.) would give an excellent sense. An is especially liable to confusion with ain? both in form and in use. The distinction is this, that ain? introduces a repetition, generally an exact repetition, while an introduces an interpretation with changed phraseology. The two cases in which the reading of the MSS is opposed to this rule are Bacch. 1162, quid multa? ego amo. || an amas? where I should read ain? amas? and Asin. 812, ain tu? which Uss., Langen, Beitr. 199, change to an. In Aul. 538, edi sermonem tuom. | an audivisti? Goetz follows Gruter and Bentley in changing to ain? audivisti? I should follow the MSS, with hiatus in the change of speakers, because of the change from a more involved to a plainer phrase; cf. esp. Mil. 822 and St. 246, eho, an audivisti?

At the beginning of a speech, Pl. 58 [61], Ter. 25.

Looking at these questions by themselves, without reference to the complete disjunctive sentence, the sequence of thought is this: one speaker implies, in the course of what he says, an opinion which excites the surprise or incredulity of the other, who in the an sentence questions the correctness of the suggested opinion. This he may do in such a way as to imply that he himself was mistaken, or that the other speaker was mistaken, or he may leave the matter entirely in doubt. In Most. 519, an quaeso tu appellaveras? ita me di amabunt, mortuom illum credidi expostulare, Tranio at first pretends to believe that the ghost had called him (heus, Tranio, 515), but when Theopropides says quicum istaec loquere? he is convinced of his error. So Amph. 964, me . . . dixisse per iocum. || an id ioco dixisti? equidem hercle serio ac vero ratus. In Poen. 334, . . . ut Venerem propitiem. || eho, an iratast? propitia herclest, in Trin. 371, 637, and elsewhere, the speaker implies that the idea taken up in the an-question was mistaken. But in the great majority of the cases the question with an expresses no opinion, but only asks for confirmation and direct assertion of that which has been indirectly implied.

If now we hold to the common doctrine that an by its nature always expresses an alternative, it must be acknowledged that in many of these cases it is not difficult to supply a first member like "have I understood you rightly?" "is that the case or . . .?" Perhaps there is no case in which some form of first member could not be thought out which would at once suit the context and be an antithesis to the an-question. But, on the other hand, there is hardly a single one of these questions which naturally and easily suggests a complete disjunctive question; there is in most cases something forced and artificial in the ellipsis, and in some cases, e. g. Ps. 1161, 1172, Mil. 822, 840, Trin. 934, 942, 943, Eun. 733, the awkwardness and artificiality are very clear. The full force of this can be felt only by making an examination of all the cases in the foregoing list. From such an examination, which I have no space to give here in detail, it is clear to me, in the first place, that it would be equally easy to supply a first member for all the questions having ne appended to the verb, and, in the second place, that it would be easier to supply a second member to the an-questions than to supply a first member, if it were not for the feeling, which comes from the classical Latin, that an must necessarily mean "or." In other words, it is logic, not language, which requires the completion of every an-question, and the disjunctive question thus formed is simply the logically complete question into which any kind of sentence question may be expanded.

(b). The question with an, though not at the beginning of the speech, refers back to the words of the other speaker and the intervening sentence is parenthetic.

The interposed sentence may be a mere remark. Poen. 1194, sicut nos... praestitimus pulcritudine. || stulta... es. an tu eo pulcra videre, opsecro, si...? So Capt. 680, Hec. 878, Trin. 954. Or a question may come between. Hec. 671, ... ego alam? || quid dixti? eho, an non alemus, Parmeno? So with quid ais? Hec. 346, with some form of repetition Aul. 82, Ad. 661, Eun. 857, Hec. 209. Ps. 305 belongs in this general class, whether we read credere autem? or with Bugge, Langen, p. 315, aude. In Trin. 954 ff. the question with an refers either to the preceding speech or to the interposed words, and, in general, the clause is not wholly parenthetic, but is rather a preparation for the an-question. This usage therefore forms a kind of connecting link between the preceding class (a) and those which follow.

Pl. 5, Ter. 6.

(c). The question with an refers to something which the speaker has himself said. Under this head fall all the remaining questions with an, both complete and incomplete, and in order to trace their connection with each other I have subdivided them according to the form of the preceding sentence.

(1). The preceding sentence is declarative. Amph. 1027, paene ecfregisti . . . cardines. an foris censebas nobis publicitus praeberier? Amph. 688, Asin. 528, Capt. 257, Men. 962, Most. 334 (the arrangement of speakers is not certain), 596, Poen. 265, St. 294, Truc. 88, And. 621, Hec. 215, Ph. 279 (the intervening speech is an aside), 1024.

Pl. 10, Ter. 4.

These occur mostly in the midst of a long speech. They do not express an antithesis or an alternative to what precedes, but rather a possible interpretation of it which suddenly arises in the mind of the speaker and causes him to change his previous opinion, to look upon the matter from a new point of view. So in Men. 962, Menaechmus hardly knows whether he is in his senses or not, and is thinking over the reasons for hoping that he is sane, when suddenly a new explanation of the strange events occurs to him: an illi, perperam insanire qui aiunt me, ipsi insaniunt? The awkwardness of supplying a clause with utrum is even greater here than in the cases given above, though it is perhaps not possible to exclude the hypothesis of an ellipsis altogether.

(2). A quis-question precedes the sentence with an. Amph. 661, quid ille revortitur...? an ille me temptat sciens, ...? Most. 7, quid tibi ... clamitatiost? an ruri censes te esse? Eun. 907, quamobrem? an quia pudet? Amph. 457, Asin. 524, Bacch. 676, Capt. 629, Cist. IV 1, 17, Men. 231, 496, 722, Most. 35, Ps. 92, Rud. 111, And. 888, Eun. 1017, Heaut. 334, 543, Hec. 293, 356, 436, 784, Ph. 602. Without verb, Most. 489, St. 549, 552. In Rud. 1274 the speaker pays no attention to the meaningless answer censeo.

Pl. 17, Ter. 10.

In all these cases the sequence of thought is the same. In the quis-question the speaker asks in the most general way about some preceding act; then his mind, reviewing all possible answers, suddenly settles upon one as most probable or most interesting, and he inquires about it in the an-sentence. So in Amph. 661 the ideas come up in this way: "He has returned. Why? Which of all possible reasons has caused his return? To try me! Is that it? Is he trying to find out how I bear his absence?" These questions therefore resemble those already given in expressing

the sudden turning of the mind to some new thought. It is possible to supply a first clause, but the sequence of thought indicated above, one of every-day occurrence, is complete enough in itself.

(3). A question with *num* precedes. The only cases are Poen. 1315, Ph. 412, and by conjecture Merc. 981; cf. Madvig, Opusc. Acad. II, p. 230 ff., Kühner, II, p. 1017. As Kühner holds that *num* always expects a negative answer, his remarks do not apply to Poen. 1315. The small number of cases is due to the fact that *num* frequently calls attention to an evident fact about which there could be no further question.

Pl. 1 [2], Ter. 1.

(4). A question with *ne* or without a particle precedes the *an*-question. (The illustrations given here will be included in the full list at the end of this division.)

(i). In some cases the preceding question is subordinate and an refers back over it, as in the cases under b. Ad. 337,... narremus quoipiam? || au, au, mi homo, sanun es? an hoc proferendum tibi videtur usquam? So Aul. 424, Mil. 499.

(ii). In certain passages the question with an is, if reduced to its essential idea, nothing more than a repetition in different form of the preceding question. Asin. 504, nequeon ego ted interdictis facere mansuetem meis? an ita tu's animata ut qui expers matris imperio sies? These two questions amount to the same thing in the end, but the variation of phrase, the emphasis laid in the one case upon the mother's power, in the other upon the daughter's disposition, introduce a kind of adversative or disjunctive idea; cf. also Poen. 1315, Asin. 509, Eun. 47, 1013, Heaut. 505, Hec. 663, Ad. 782, Ph. 415, the last coming nearest to a complete disjunctive question.

#### COMPLETE DISJUNCTIVE QUESTIONS.

Although we pass at this point across the line which is commonly held to separate the complete disjunctive question from the so-called incomplete form with an, the distinction is so slight that the preceding classification is continued.

(iii). The question with an is almost a perfect antithesis to the previous question, but has a different verb.

Mil. 1424, verberone etiam an iam mittis? The perfect disjunctive would be an non verbero? and the question an iam mittis? is not the alternative, but the suggestion of a new third possibility which occurs to the slave as he speaks. As in Most.

7, quid tibi... clamitatiost? an ruri censes te esse? the question with an selects one of the possibilities of the quid-question, so here an selects for expression, not the perfect alternative, but merely a kind of second thought. So Ad. 336, Men. 319, Bacch. 1168, Curc. 589, Merc. 902. In Trin. 468 ff. the antithesis is almost perfect.

(iv). Even where the verb is the same for both clauses the disjunctive idea is sometimes only partially complete. Mil. 783, ingenuamne an libertinam? does not include the possibility of a

slave; cf. Mil. 965 and 966.

(v). The use of an—an must also be regarded as a survival of the independent an-question; cf. Draeg. I 347. Ps. 1247, pedes, statin an non? an id voltis, ut me hinc iacentem aliquis tollat? shows clearly how, after the complete alternative of the first sentence, a third possibility, explanatory of the an non, occurs to the speaker. Other cases are Amph. 690, Epid. 223, Eun. 386, 986, 1044 (ne—an—an—an). Cf. Aul. 730.

The illustrations thus far given show how indistinct is the line which separates the independent an-question, following another question, from what would properly be punctuated as a single disjunctive question. The next step is the perfect disjunctive with an non.

The passages in which an follows a question with ne, with an, or without a particle, whether punctuated as one sentence or as two, are as follows:

ne—an, Amph. 343, Asin. 504, 509, 687, Bacch. 31 (anne), Capt. 270, Cas. II 6, 53, Epid. 634, Men. 198, 319, Merc. 130, 150, 602, Mil. 499, 783, 961, 965, 1020, 1424, Ps. 610, Trin. 331, 332, 468 ff., Ad. 185, 336, 337, Eun. 1013, Heaut. 203, Hec. 663, Ph. 275, 415. Pl. 23, Ter. 8.

(—) — an, Aul. 424, Bacch. 162, 1168, Capt. 334, Curc. 589, Merc. 902, Men. 915, Rud. 853, Trin. 349, Ad. 782, Eun. 47, Heaut. 505.

Pl. 9, Ter. 3.

ne — an non, Aul. 643, 660, Capt. 74, 846, Curc. 566, Epid. 538, Mil. 416, 449, Pers. 533, Ps. 254, 616, 1246, Rud. 1399, Trin. 1071, Truc. 4, 755, 825, And. 186, 201, Heaut. 405, Ph. 852.

Pl. 16, Ter. 4.

These have impv. force in 2d sing. pres. except Aul. 643 and Ps. 616. The rest are mostly estne.

(—) — an non, Mil. 787, Pers. 378, St. 264, Trin. 983, And. 762, Eun. 546, 968, Heaut. 595, Ph. 147. Pl. 4, Ter. 5.

an — an, Amph. 690, Epid. 223, Ps. 1247, Eun. 386, 986, 1044 ff. Pl. 3, Ter. 3.

The other forms of the complete disjunctive occur as follows: ne — necne, Capt. 713.

utrum — ne — an, Bacch. 75, Men. 1119, Ps. 709, Rud. 104, St. 118, 703, Ad. 382, Eun. 721. Pl. 5, Ter. 2.

utrum—an, Amph. prol. 56 (cf. Mil. 787), Cas. II 4, 10, Cist. 247 Uss. (Frag. 23, Ben.) III 10, Pers. 341, Ps. 878, Rud. 780, Trin. 175.

Pl. 8.

On anne see Draeg. I 351, Kühn. II 1016. It is found Bacch. 31, Cist. II 1, 42, Rud. 1140, 1275, Truc. 666, And. 851. Truc. 695 should be ianne. These are of course independent uses of an.

Pl. 3, Ter. 1.

In the following an has been added by conjecture: Cas. III 5, 53, Curc. 129, Poen. 1130, Rud. 233, St. 330, Truc. 135, 723. Found in the MSS, but omitted for metrical reasons, Pers. 483, Ph. 737. Truc. 272 is somewhat doubtful, but has an in an independent question. In Trin. 922 I have followed Speng. Bx. Ps. 124 is confused in the MSS, but utrum oculum anne aurem? (Bx. Lor.) is probably correct.

This classification of an and disjunctive questions is not given with the belief that it corresponds in detail to the order of development, but it is meant to illustrate in a general way the fact that the independent an-sentence preceded the complete disjunctive question.

1. In language simplicity comes before complexity. The proofs of this are multiplying in all fields of philology, and it is a priori extremely improbable that the disjunctive question arose at once in complete form. To reverse the order and derive the simple question from the compound is to confuse language with logic.

2. While in classical Latin the complete disjunctive question is more common (so, at least, Draeger appears to state) than an alone, especially in the forms with utrum, in Pl. and Ter. the proportion is reversed. In simple sentences an is used about 150 times, in compound sentences without utrum about 70 times, with utrum 15 or 16 times. This proportion is explicable only on the hypothesis that the utrum—an form was either a new type in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Hinze regards anne as the original form. The connection with åv and Gothic an is, I think, a fatal objection to this view. I take an-ne to be a further illustration of the extension of ne to sentences where it was not strictly necessary.

the time of Pl. and Ter. or was just dying out. Its later history contradicts the second alternative, since it can hardly be held that the dialogue nature of comedy, favorable as it is to ellipses, can account for a disproportion so great.

3. The difficulty of framing a first member to fill the supposed ellipsis has been already pointed out, and with any one who will

make the actual test it will have great weight.

The history of the an-sentence I suppose to have been something like this: From its pronominal origin an must have derived a strong demonstrative force, whether it meant simply "that" or "the other, the second," and this demonstrative emphasis fitted it for use in questions which began with the sudden perception, either in the speaker's own mind or in the words of another, of some new and interesting suggestion. So an selects a single point in the stream of thought—"that! do you mean that?"—for emphatic comment or question. Therefore when an followed a quis-question it contrasted some single possibility with all the others, when it followed a question with ne it contrasted some second possibility with the first, and so passed from emphasis to antithesis and to alternation, and finally to the forms in which the verb would be the same in both members and to the perfect disjunctive with an non.

To the double question thus formed by mere juxtaposition, as the indirect question was formed out of the direct, and all hypotactic forms out of paratactic, utrum was prefixed as a clearer expression of the alternative; cf. the introductory quid? As Draeger remarks, I 346, utrum retains much of its original pronominal force, e. g. in Men. 1119, uter eratis, tun an ille, maior? Bacch. 75, simulato me amare. || utrum ego istuc iocon adsimulem an serio?

With the growth of logical habits of thought and expression the use of the complete disjunctive question became more general, and it is quite likely that the analogy of the independent an-sentence, which was never entirely suppressed, may have led to the use of an-questions, especially in rhetorical styles, e. g. in Cicero, with a partially felt ellipsis of a first member; cf. the statistics for Persius and Ovid given by Dr. Morris H. Morgan, Class. Rev., Feb. 1889 (III 1), p. 10. Persius has 5 cases of complete disjunctive question, 2 in which the first member is "easily supplied" and 7 independent; Ovid has 35 complete, 24 with first member "omitted but easily supplied," 21 independent. Dr. Morgan has

kindly sent me the references for these, and the cases in which a first member is supplied from the context seem to me to be of a kind not found in Pl. and Ter. I should say the same of the rhetorical uses so fully studied in Seyffert's Scholae Latinae.

#### IMPERATIVE QUESTIONS.

Questions having something of the force of a command have been noted as they occurred in the foregoing lists. They are abin, accipin, audin when it refers to what is about to be said, dan datin, dicisne, fugin, in (isne), iuben with infin., manen, praeben, properatin, recedin, reddin (text not sure), viden ut (not distinct), daturne (text improbable), ibin (text?), eximesne (MSS eximes), fut. ptc. with esse except Eun. 462, etiamne (five cases), potin ut or potin with subjunct., ecquid agis, audis, etc., ecquis currit, aperit, etc., non taces, abis, respondes, etc. (27 cases), etiam taces, respondetis, etc. (19 cases), possibly a few times with iam. In sentences without a particle having the verb late there is no impv. force, and there are no clear cases with the verb early (IV G.); an does not give impv. effect in any case, but in complete disjunctive questions with an non some of these forms recur, e. g. abin an non?

These fall into a few general classes, verbs with ne, ecquis ecquid, non, potin ut, etiam(ne), and fut. ptcc., and it is at once apparent that these are so various as to exclude the hypothesis that the impv. effect is produced by any single word or single form of question. The only common element is the present tense (omitting the half dozen futures), and it seemed to me possible that the explanation might be found in a vaguely future use of the pres.; cf. quid ago? eon? and the 2d pers. fut. for the impv. in assertions. But upon this hypothesis the future itself should be frequently used with impv. force (cf. quid ago? with the much more frequent quid agam?), whereas it occurs only six or eight times. Also the 2d pers. fut. has impv. force because its use expresses a confident expectation, and this would correspond to the use of the 1st pers. in questions; cf. the uses of iam. It is easy to translate abin? "will you get out?" but the Engl. will simply confuses the precise sense of the Latin. I conclude, therefore, that the impv. questions cannot belong to the class of idioms which preserve a meaning originally inherent in a word or phrase, but must be explained as later deviations from the original and proper meanings of questions. In other words, they may be strictly called "questions

used instead of commands," and it remains only to discover, if possible, the psychological motives which led to the use of the interrogative sentence in imperative functions.

In the majority of cases, especially with ne, the impv. use lies close to the ne = nonne usage, that is, it results from the employment of a formal question where only one answer is possible. Thus abin, addressed as it usually is by a superior to an inferior, is a hint so strong as to amount to a command; accipin, in immediate connection with tene and accipe, is like Engl. "Are you going to take this?" So the other verbs, audin, dan, dicisne, fugin, praeben and the rest, all refer to some act which was plainly not being performed, and about which the speaker could not ask for information: "Are you running away? are you giving me water?" The circumstances supplied the answer, so that there could not be any real interrogation; only the urgency remained and gave a partial impv. effect.

In a few cases certainly, perhaps in most, there is also an ironical tone, produced or expressed by asking a very formal question where the answer is obvious. So with *potin ut*, which almost always has a verb of passivity depending upon it, *quiescas*, *molestus ne sis*, etc., like the Engl. "Will you be so kind as to attend to your own business?"

With non taces? non abis? etiam tu taces? about 50 cases in all, there is no formal questioning; the sentences are exclamatory, and the impv. effect, which is not very strong, is only a slight extension of the exclamation. non taces? means "You don't keep still! (I am surprised; I had supposed you would)." etiam tu taces? means "Quiet at last! (I expected you to keep still long ago)."

While these questions may properly be said to be used "instead of the impv." and may in some cases seem to be really equivalent to it, they nevertheless retain a close connection with their original use. Thus abin an non? || abeo; thus dicisne is answered once by dicam, once by dico, fugin by ego vero ac lubens, viden by video, potin ut by potest, non taces by non taceo. These show conclusively that a sense of the interrogation was still left, as indeed must have been the case as long as audin, viden and others could still be used in a pure interrogation. On ecquis hic est? and ecquis aperit? used side by side (an especially instructive case) see III, near the end. On the other hand, of the verbs given above with ne having impv. force, abin, accipin, dan, dicisne, fugin, in,

manen, mittin, praeben, properatin, recedin, reddin are never used without impv. force, in a pure interrogation. This is doubtless due partly to the meaning of the verbs, but it seems to me to indicate that, as they took on the impv. function, they tended to lose the interrogative function and to become fixed in the impv. sense. This is most distinct in abin, which became formulaic in curses.

#### ON THE HISTORY OF THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE.

The early history of the Latin interrogative sentence must of necessity rest largely upon inference, and the following sketch is not supposed to be a final statement, but is intended as a working hypothesis to be filled out at some future time.

It is a mistake to measure the interrogative sentence by the standard of the declarative. The earliest sentence was neither declarative, nor imperative, nor exclamatory, nor interrogative, but contained in itself the possibilities of all these, and could be all of them by turns. It had no normal order and no normal voiceinflection, but the earliest step toward differentiation must have been the association of certain successions of words and certain inflections with special meanings. So a sentence with the verb at the end and with unemotional inflection became associated with the simple declaration, and in the same way arose several forms of sentence varying in meaning from the exclamation to the comparatively unemotional question: First, a sentence like the declarative, but with emotional, perhaps rising, inflection, in which the voice expressed sufficiently the very slight interrogative-exclamatory character. Second, sentences in which some form of the pronoun stood first. These were considerably varied and included or were the source of many later forms of the interrogative sentence. Perhaps the most distinct were those in which the pronoun was the subject and had not begun to change at all into an adverb or particle. So hic, ille, iste and the personal pronouns ego, tu, which not only stood at the beginning, but by the very fact that they were expressed at all aided the exclamatory-interrogative character of the sentence. With these was used a sentence in which the indefinite (originally demonstrative) quis stood at the beginning.1 Further, there were sentences in which words of pronominal stem

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It is of course possible to suppose that the interrogative function was developed in this word before the indefinite, but see Kvičala, Unters. auf dem Gebiete der Pron., p. 6 ff.; Paul, Princ.<sup>2</sup> p. 109.

in the acc. or loc., perhaps already turned into adverbs, stood at the beginning. Among these (for some may have been lost) were an, a word of such strong demonstrative force that it had a contrasting effect, and num or nunc, of the same stem as nam. Third, the verb itself took the first place in the sentence under the influence of strongly marked interrogative inflection; this strong emphasis upon the most important word of the sentence doubtless marked the widest departure from the declarative and the nearest approach to the simple question.

Some of these forms, perhaps all, must have been very early. The last, with the verb at the beginning, appears in German, and, I am told, in Gothic also, but I have been unable to find out whether the Sanskrit has any such interrogative form, and must in any case leave to comparative philologists the question whether this was an original I. E. form of sentence. I should conjecture that it was.

At this stage there was no special form of question for the nonne sense, but as this sense is really very close to the neutral question it was expressed by the question with the verb early, e. g. sum verus? Cf. also the uses of ecquid above. Even for questions expecting a negative answer, though num was used early, the differentiation was so incomplete that this sense could be expressed by sentences which had the verb at the beginning (credis) or by ecquid.

From this second stage in the development of the interrogative sentence arose three particles, that is, of the words upon which the interrogative emphasis rested, three lost in large measure their proper meaning, and, by constant association with questions, seemed to be and therefore became mere signs of the interrogation, though retaining traces of their original use. Of these the most important was an, which, if not the earliest, was certainly very early, and was entirely independent in its development, that is, was not made interrogative by association with any other word, but by the fact of its having stood as a strong demonstrative at the head of the sentence. I cannot see that it makes any difference whether we say that the stem meant "that" or "the other, the second," since the latter meaning is nothing but a development of the strong contrasting demonstrative idea. The use of an in corrective and adversative questions and its later disjunctive force have already been discussed in detail.

The second particle which must be referred to this early stage

is num. While acknowledging freely the obscurity which surrounds the origin and proper meaning of this word, I consider the connection with nunc more probable than that with ne, and suppose that the challenging use (cf. St. 297, nunc ultro id deportem?) was the earlier, from which the neutral sense came by further loss of meaning. The later prevailing sense, expecting a negative answer, would then come from the challenging use, and the use in indirect questions would be descended from the neutral sense.

A third interrogative word, whose origin was apparently early, was ec- or en, associated always with the indefinites quis and unquam. Whatever may have been its original form, it was so largely used by Pl. that it can hardly have been a new word in his time, but it was a neutral word and came into competition with ne, so that even in Ter. its use had greatly decreased.

A third and very important step in the history of the interrogative sentence was the development of the particle -ne. From the locative na-i came three forms, ne, nei, ni, all containing already the negative idea, which came from the strong demonstrative idea ("that, not this"). For the negative see, among others, Ritschl, Opusc. II 622 ff., Ribbeck, Partik., 16 ff. While ni branched off with (negative) conditional sentences, ne became the earliest and most widely used negative, appearing in classical Latin in the conjunction, in non, etc. It did not originate a distinct form of question, but was introduced into a question already formed, the question in which the verb stood at the beginning. This was the most neutral kind of question, and every neutral question suggests a negation, is by its nature a wavering between affirmation and negation. Warren is wrong in the irony with which he says of Hand that he intrenches himself "behind the profound philosophical observation that every question implies doubt, and that all doubt borders upon negation, and that hence every question contains a negative element," p. 72; cf. Hand IV 71. No doubt Hand goes much too far in supposing that the negative was always felt in -ne, but the correctness of the general view that the interrogation and the negation are closely allied, psychologically, is placed beyond a doubt by Imme, II, p. 6 ff., and clearly recognized by Paul, p. 110. This negative element was more and more clearly felt, as the interrogative sentence swung away from the exclamation, until in the balanced, neutral question, with the verb at the beginning, it found expression in the negative word ne. Psychologically considered, such a question as estne frater intus? was almost the same thing as the later est frater intus an non?

Having thus found a place in the neutral question, ne lost by the law of association its proper negative force and became a neutral interrogative particle. It was thus fitted for a wider use as the sign of a question than an or num, and extended its sphere from the sentence which began with a verb to all forms of question which had not already some mark of interrogation, even to those in which the interrogative tone was very slight. In this way are to be explained the various kinds of exclamatory sentence with ne, tun is eras? nuncin demum? egon dicam? ilan contemnor? eine ego ut advorser? and the exclamatory infinitives haecine te esse oblitum? mene efferre? etc. This is also the reason why no certain line can be drawn between, e. g. audisti and audistin, between est and estne, etiam and etiamne. All these forms of sentence continued to exist alongside of the more distinct interrogation, and it was optional with the speaker in the time of Pl. to use the older form or to heighten somewhat the questioning tone of an exclamatory sentence by the use of ne. Yet this encroachment of the interrogation upon the exclamation was not unchecked, since of the 900 questions without a particle about nine-tenths are exclamatory. Finally, after ne became thoroughly neutralized, there was a further development of idioms out of the pure question, such as some of the uses of ain, audin, viden, vin, and especially the imperative questions, abin, fugin, etc.

The process by which ne became an interrogative particle is therefore essentially different from that which produced an and num. These were independent pronominal words which the interrogative-exclamatory inflection held at the beginning of the sentence, and which became interrogative when the sentence did; ne was introduced into an interrogative sentence that was already fully developed, as a fuller and, one might almost say, deliberate expression of the interrogation.

I am acquainted with only two sketches of the early history of ne. The first is by Probst, Beiträge zur Lateinischen Grammatik, II, pp. 135-6, given as an illustration of his general view that conjunctions get their meaning by association. After speaking of the forms ne, nei, ni, he says, "Wir verfolgen hier nur die Form 'ne' weiter. Diesem 'ne' assoziierte sich der Gedankeninhalt der Fragen, in denen es vorzugsweise verwendet wurde, d. h. es hatte bald positiven, bald negativen Sinn (Kühner, II, p. 1002). Beide Bedeutungen kamen dann auch offenbar durch Vermittlung der rhetorischen Fragen (d. s. Aussagen) in der Aussage zur Geltung.

So ergaben sich von einem einheitlichen Stamme zwei der Bedeutung nach verschiedene 'ne,' die der Herkunft nach jedoch nicht von einander zu trennen sind (vgl. Deecke in Bursian's Jahresberichten XXVIII 226 [should be 216]). Das positive 'ne' (nae) tritt noch z. B. in Verbindung mit 'edepol' u. ähnl. auf; aber auch in dem Sinne von 'etiam, nempe, enim' (Priscian II 101) oder von 'ergo' (Serv. zur Aen.), vgl. Minton Warren in American Journal of Philology II 5, 32, s. 8, 1881 [II 5, pp. 50 ff.], findet es sich. Das negative 'ne 'zeigt sich z. B. in 'neque, nec, non (neoenum), neve' u. s. f. als einfache Negation oder negative Konjunktion." Taken in connection with the whole drift of the argument I suppose this to mean that ne, nei, ni was originally neutral, that ne got both negative and affirmative meanings in and through its use in questions, that both meanings passed from questions into declarative uses, and that  $n\bar{e}$  the negative and conjunction is thus descended from -ne the interrogative particle. Not to dwell upon some obvious difficulties-e. g., it does not account for the negative sense of ni—the theory is sufficiently condemned by the fact that it leaves the Latin language without any negative at all until after the interrogative sentence was fully developed. The fact, of course, is that the negative sense of ne arose long before the time when language began to be written down.1

The position taken by Professor Warren in the article referred to above is, on the other hand, perfectly clear, though it is merely suggested in the course of a paper devoted to other uses than the interrogative. He starts with the egone si, hicine si sentences, in which ne is apparently not interrogative. In this ne he sees the remnant of a supposed nem, an affirmative particle parallel to nam from the stem na, which passed over from declarative to interrogative sentences, especially exclamatory sentences like egone ut, men with the infin., etc. It did not come within the scope of Professor Warren's paper to fix precisely the limits of this use—"the interrogative use of the affirmative në"—but the only form of question in which he clearly recognizes the negative në is where ne seems to have the force of nonne. This theory has been accepted

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The third part of this essay (Leipzig, 1888) contains various remarks upon the interrogative sentence which I have not thought it worth while to refer to in detail. The history of an, pp. 238 ff., deserves mention for the confidence with which the author asserts that an was originally neutral in sense and was driven into a negative function (which it nowhere has) by the competition of ne and nonne (the latter of which did not come into existence till after the functions of an were fixed).

in whole by Dahl, VT, p. 299, and as to the non-interrogative sentences by Ribbeck on Mil. Glor. 309, Brix on the same (310) and doubtless by others.<sup>1</sup>

I have tried to show above that the "ne=nonne" questions do not constitute a special class marked off by definite lines from other ne-questions; they indicate merely a use to which the neutral question was put, one of the idiomatic offshoots of the ne-question, like the impv. question. So audin "don't you hear?" audin "do you hear?" and audin "do you hear!" (impv.) are really one and the same phrase. If this is correct, then  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is no more negative in one audin than in the others; all contain the ne of negative origin, and the "ne=nonne" questions take their place with other idiomatic offshoots of the neutral question, from which they differ only by the fact that this sense is not strictly confined to ne-questions, and must therefore in part antedate the use of ne. My reasons for thinking that the -ne used in exclamations, tun is eras? nuncin demum? men efferre . . .? and the rest, is simply an extension of the interrogative use to partially interrogative sentences have been already given. In regard to all these forms of sentence Professor Warren seems to me to be following the scholiasts and grammarians too far. Their strength lies in statements of fact; in explanations they are weak. The statement of a grammarian that in a certain sentence he felt a shade of meaning which he expressed by ergo is to be received with respect; his explanation of this meaning as due to ne I look upon as a very natural error, especially if the same meaning appears in other sentences without ne. All the shades of meaning which Professor Warren illustrates by the ne: ergo, ne: vero glosses I should attribute to the order, the mood, the voice-inflection, more than to the single word ne; in short, this appears to me to be a case in which the sentence has influenced the meaning of the particle far more than the particle has influenced the sentence.

The question whether *ne* first entered the interrogative sentence through the "*ne*=*nonne*" question or through the neutral question

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Brix suggests another explanation, viz., that  $-n\check{e}$  in non-interrogative sentences may come from the affirmative  $n\check{e}$ , shortened and made enclitic. I venture to suggest a third hypothesis: as  $n\check{e}$  by association with neutral questions lost its negative force and became interrogative, so  $-n\check{e}$  by being used with an emphatic pronoun in exclamations was still further weakened into a particle of exclamatory emphasis, and could be used with *hicine*, *egone*, *tune* in sentences no longer interrogative. The word "affirmative" does not quite express the idea.

is less important, since it must in either case have been extended at once to all sentences with the verb at the beginning. But if it began in the neutral question, it is easy to see how it lost its negative force, while in a question with the effect of nonne it would tend strongly to retain a distinct negative force. Further, a true nonne-question is a negative sentence turned into a question; it has a corresponding negative declarative sentence, non audio, non dixi. But dixin is a question into which a negative has entered, and corresponds to dixi, not to non dixi. The position, also, of ne after the verb seems to distinguish these sentences from the earliest form of the negative question, in which non comes at the beginning and the verb at the end.

The fourth step in the history of questions resulted in several minor forms of sentence, and in one which afterward had wide use. This was the non, nonne question. It has already been shown that the distinction between the negative exclamation and the negative question corresponds to a difference in the position of non, and that the question has non at the beginning and the verb at the end. As non retained its independence and its negative meaning, ne could not be used with it until ne had itself lost its negative sense. For this reason, as well as because the non-question was itself of late origin, nonne was just beginning in the time of Pl. and is infrequent in Ter. Later, when the logical forms of the literary language crushed out the free natural growths,

nonne played a great part in the interrogative sentence.

Imme points out (II, pp. 21, 26) the considerable influence which words of precision (Fragewörter der Bestimmtheit) have upon questions. German examples are jetzt, immer, noch, je; the most evident case in Latin is num, but to this class I should assign etiam, especially with imperative force, and the few cases of iam mentioned above. Like the German wirklich, English really, actually, are the cases of itane in which ita has lost its standard of comparison; satin is even clearer, and is an excellent illustration on a small scale of the making of an interrogative particle. Of course these are not like an, since the interrogative force lay from the beginning in ne, but the gradual change of meaning from "enough" to "really, actually" shows that in sentences like satin abiit? satin was no longer felt as a compound, but had become little more than a particle.

In all these cases the same linguistic impulse is still at work that produced an and num; but in the time of Pl. this impulse

spent its force, and from this time on no new particles were brought into use.

While the question had thus been developing various forms to express various shades of meaning, the exclamatory sentence had at no time ceased to be used, though it had, perhaps owing to its kinship with the declarative sentence, been less prolific in evolving special forms. We might perhaps regard some of the interjections as signs of the exclamation, and certainly nempe, fortasse, videlicet, credo performed at times the function of indicating a hesitating assertion. The sentence with cesso also maintained itself as an idiom without ne; possibly it is raised into unnatural prominence, as videon certainly is, by the recurrence of a particular dramatic situation. The examples of the exclamation will be found mostly under IV.

As the exclamation is akin to the repetition, it often suggests rejection or repudiation. In this way the pronominal questions under I. B, either with or without ne, retain much of the exclamatory force, because they take up for question some single idea already suggested. They pass over the main idea as correct, and settle down with all the force of contrast upon one thing, questioning that alone with a severity which suggests a doubt of its correctness.

All the forms of question thus far enumerated grew out of the exclamatory-declarative sentence; from the sentence of will there came a similar but much less extended development. The mark of this kind of sentence, so far as questions are concerned, is the subjunctive.

The deliberative question, addressed by the speaker to himself, corresponds to the indicative question with the verb at the beginning, and like that may have ne; it is a simple question in regard to the speaker's intention or ability, and the subjunctive retains so much of its future force as to be in single cases indistinguishable from a future.

A sentence which expresses a wish, an exhortation, a command, that is, the will of another person, is not in itself questioning, but exclamatory. I have already shown that the forms in the 1st pers., which are the only ones at all noteworthy, follow all but invariably an impv. or some other expression of willing, and are closely allied to repetitions. In fact dic. || dicam? is simply an exclamatory repetition with the necessary change of person, and, except for the mood, exactly like dixisti. || dixi? That is, the

repudiation is due to the exclamatory repetition; all that the mood does is to direct the repudiation upon the will. The simplest form, e.g., abi. || abeam? is found, but this is more frequently, and with ne invariably, used for deliberative questions. In repudiation it is almost instinctive to add an interrogative or a pronoun or both, as in English, though it is possible to express this idea in a single word with peculiar circumflex accent ("speak! || speak?"), it is more natural to add some further words. All the interrogatives may be used, as with the indic. Compare Aul. 652, certe habes. | habeo ego? quid habeo? with Bacch. 406, sequere. || quo sequar? Bacch. 630, habe bonum animum. || unde habeam? Eun. 610, muta vestem. || ubi mutem? There is no real difference between quo, ubi, unde in these sentences, and ut in Amph. 694, te ut deludam contra . . .? But the form with ut alone is not frequent; generally the pronoun is added to dicam or ut dicam, either alone or with ne. Cf. egon with the indic. And . as in English these sentences are expressed by a circumflex accent upon both words, so in Latin the ordinary position of egon before ut shows that it was not fully incorporated into the sentence. When ne is used with these forms of exclamation, it expresses the nearest approach to a real question. For an unemotional questioning of the will of another person, a leading verb in the indic. must be introduced. So Aul. 634, redde huc sis. || quid tibi vis reddam? Most. 578, gere modum . . . || quid tibi ego vis geram? are to be regarded as extensions of quid reddam, geram? in the direction of unemotional questioning.

What is remarkable, therefore, in these much discussed questions ("die unwilligen oder missbilligenden Fragen") is the convergence upon them of two lines of influence, the mood, by which they express will, and the exclamatory repetition, which makes them repudiating.

While it is plain that ut is interrogative in these questions and similar to quid, unde, ubi, there is in questions with utine the difficulty that this involves the use of -ne with an interrogative. This anomaly is rare and late, occurring only once (Trin. 1095) in Pl., and not at all in Ter. If the utine questions are put by the side

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Kraz, die sog. unwillige oder misbilligende Frage, Stuttgart, 1862; Müller, same title, Görlitz, 1875; cf. Schnoor, zum Gebrauch von ut bei Pl., Neumünster, 1885, p. 3. A discussion of the mood in these questions would be profitless until the subjunctive in declarative sentences in Pl. and Ter. has been more thoroughly studied.

of quaene, quodne, quiane and other relatives, it will be seen that the kinship is hardly less close than that with ut, both in form (except for the mood) and in repudiating effect. The explanation I take to be this: The change from parataxis to hypotaxis is the result, not so much of the putting together of two complete sentences, as of the prefixing of an introductory verb to the clause which thus became subordinate. Thus ne id accidat was the original portion, and timeo was a prefixed introduction, an expression of the total intention of the clause; so quid negoti est (sit)? was an exclamatory repetition to which rogas was prefixed. This leading verb, the expression of a greater precision, struggled slowly up from unconsciousness to consciousness and expression, and there must have been a time with every construction which passed from parataxis to hypotaxis, when the idea of the leading verb was partially felt and could be expressed or omitted. Many illustrations of this may be found in Pl. and Ter., e. g., with ain, audin, rogas, and cf. vis reddam, above. At this point stood the ut questions, descended evidently and immediately from ut interrogative, but with a faint consciousness that greater precision required an introductory verb, and therefore just on the point of changing from ut interrogative to ut relative. This is the reason why these clauses with utine so closely resemble quodne, quiane, quamne, and also the reason why Pl., to whom ne after an interrogative was strange, could use ne with ut. Only half the truth is expressed by classing utine questions with relatives, as I have done, or by calling ut the Interrogativum-rhetoricum (Probst, p. 150); it partakes of the nature of both.

The differences between Pl. and Ter are not as great as might be expected. The slighter differences, such as may often be found between two authors of the same period, have been noted as they came up, e. g., the greater frequency in Ter. of the 1st pers. pres. except sum, of ain? pergin, itane, etc. Two points only deserve special mention. In the first place, Ter. uses the exclamatory forms more frequently than Pl. So of repetitions of all kinds, including rogas, rogitas, he has almost as many cases in six plays as Pl. has in twenty, showing especial fondness for single verbs like tenes? nostin? etc., as well as for the infin. In the second place, Ter. employs with ne a much greater variety of questions than Pl., e. g., a greater number of verbs in the 1st pers. pres., more verbs in unusual tenses, a much greater variety of adjectives and nouns, more pronouns in other cases than the nominative.

These two tendencies indicate a widening distance between the exclamation and the question, which had been originally one. The exclamatory effect was going out of the question, and therefore Ter. used distinctively exclamatory forms where Pl. would have felt a sufficient exclamatory force in the question. And, on the other hand, the question was becoming stereotyped, and the questioning force seemed more and more to reside in the particles, especially in ne, so that the particle could carry interrogative effect into any form of sentence. The reign of the particle was beginning. This I suppose to be the ordinary course of evolution; the tendencies to variation become fixed in species, and the intermediate forms, the connecting links, drop out of existence.

# QUESTIONS CONSIDERED WITH REFERENCE TO THEIR FUNCTIONS.

The principle seems to be generally adopted in our manuals of Latin grammar that language is best presented to the student from the psychological side. Therefore we have conditional clauses, final clauses, even concessive clauses, rather than si clauses, ut clauses, qui clauses. Carrying this idea over into interrogative sentences, it has been the custom to divide them into questions for information, questions expecting a negative answer, and questions expecting an affirmative answer. This three-fold division has doubtless had some support from its general coincidence with the particles ne, num, and nonne, and it has also, unfortunately, reacted upon our conception of the meaning and uses of these particles, narrowing them too strictly within logical limits.

As a partial corrective of this too mechanical classification I have thought it worth while to call attention to the two excellent programs by Th. Imme, Die Fragesätze nach psychologischen Gesichtspunkten eingeteilt und erläutert, Cap. I-III, Cleve, 1879, Cap. IV-VI, 1881. In the first is given a general study of the interrogation with a discussion of the pronominal questions (Bestimmungsfragen). In the second the author classifies the varieties of sentence-question (Bestätigungsfragen), using for illustration mainly German, Greek and English examples. I give here a brief outline of the second program with illustrations from Pl. and Ter.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Aside from their special object these programs are worth reading as illustrating the definite and valuable results which may be obtained from the combination of psychology and philology.

Questions differ according to the proportions in which they contain two distinct lines of thought. In the first place, when the mind conceives an idea imperfectly or dimly, or when an idea once clearly grasped is rendered uncertain by the presentation to the mind of a new idea inconsistent with the first, then the effort to attain to clearness and certainty takes the form of a question, especially if there be another person present. In the second place, there may co-exist in the mind at the same time with the uncertainty a somewhat distinct opinion in regard to the matter which is the subject of the question. According to the proportions in which these two elements are present Imme makes five grades of sentence-question.

r. Questions of awakened interest (or der außtrebenden Erkenntniss), in which only the first element is present. These are the pure questions, questions for information, in regard to matters about which the speaker could not have any opinion. They are very rare in 1st pers., and not frequent in 2d pers. All forms of stipulatio, habeon rem pactam? sponden, dabin, come in this class, and such forms as ain, audin, viden, scin, vin, with direct object; also cognoscin, esne, haben, ludin, valen. Almost all 3d persons are of this kind, est(ne) frater domi? either with or without ne, and most cases of nouns, adjectives and adverbs with ne. So also many cases of num, numquis adest? numquid de Dacis audisti? (Hor.) and some few cases of an approach this sense.

2. Questions of doubt (Zweifelfragen) are not the dubitative or deliberative questions with the subjunctive, but questions where the speaker's previous opinion has been shaken by some sudden thought, so that he is thrown from certainty into doubt. Cases in which no trace of the previous opinion appears are infrequent; generally it shows itself in a leaning in one direction or the other, and according as the previous opinion was negative or affirmative, the question will lean toward the affirmative or the negative. From this result the two kinds of doubt-questions, those which expect an affirmative and those which expect a negative answer, or, as Imme calls them, yes-questions and no-questions. Examples of yes-questions, which should regularly contain a negative word, are cases of non at the beginning of the sentence with the verb at the end, nonne, ne with the effect of nonne, and the few cases without a particle which have nonne force. Imme's distinction between non and nonne is incorrect for Pl. and Ter. These are

all rather clearly marked, because the previous opinion, being negative, was distinguished by some clearly negative word. But there is no single word to express affirmation, and no-questions are therefore expressed in a great variety of ways. Words which express actuality or existence may mark a strong affirmation, and therefore in a question may indicate a leaning toward negation. Such are itane vero, satin in some meanings, verbs of thinking and believing like credin, censen, words expressing a moral or aesthetic standard like sanun, duasne uxores habet, rufamne illam virginem (Heaut. 1061), etc. Words of restriction or definition . are still more frequent; num, iam and etiam in some cases, perhaps adeon and other demonstrative words, though these pass over into more distinct rejection. Even the circumstances, without the help of any one word, may so restrict the possible answers as to leave only a negative answer open, e.g. repeton quem dedi? Out of all these ways of expressing doubt of an affirmative opinion only num clearly assumed the function of an interrogative particle, though etiam came very near doing so.

3. Questions of certainty. In these the second element, the opinion previously held, becomes still more prominent, and only so much of the question is left as expresses a wish for assent from the person addressed. Special forms of this are questions with nempe, videlicet, fortasse, credo, and other illustrations may be found among questions without a particle having the verb at the end (IV. H.) Imme compares οὐκοῦν. When the assent is doubtful, this kind of question may be highly emotional, and many kinds of exclamation and repetition lie in the borderland between this class and the next, and may be used in either way.

4. Questions of repudiation or rejection, in which the previous opinion is so strong that the question is asked only to be at once repudiated or rejected. Here belong most forms of question with demonstrative or personal pronouns, many cases with an, and many repetitions, exclamations and supplementary questions. For the most part the questioning effect is so slightly felt that ne is not used with them.

Imme makes also a separate division for pedagogic questions, but with these Plautus was happily unacquainted.

5. Rhetorical questions. In these the question has sunk away to a mere form; in the mind of the speaker there is no question, nor does he suppose that there will be any question in the mind of the hearer, but he uses the question form only to express with

greater vividness the thought which instantly rises, as an answer, in the mind of the hearer. The only rhetorical questions at all frequent in the comedy are the imperative questions and the closely allied uses of *scin*, *viden*, *vin* as introductions to the main thought. Imme seems to me to go much too far in attempting to draw sharp distinctions between rhetorical questions and questions used rhetorically.

The rhetorical question should be distinguished as to origin from the emotional or exclamatory question; the exclamation is one of the oldest varieties of question, in a sense the source of all other forms, while the rhetorical question is a late offshoot from the fully developed question through degeneration and loss of

meaning.

This outline of Imme's program may serve to illustrate the difficulties of a classification of questions according to function. All such classification introduces the delicate problem of determining just how much of its original sense may be still felt in a phrase which has been long in use. At the same time it shows the great variety of uses to which a single form of question may be put, and the large extension of usage which has taken place in regard to some kinds of interrogative sentence. The question having the verb with ne, for example, is found in all five classes, and even in both subdivisions of doubt-questions, and of the forms in general use in the time of Plautus hardly one is confined to a single function. Especially in no-questions the great variety of shadings in interrogative sentences is well illustrated (Imme treats this at great length), and the extreme difficulty of fixing the meaning of the sentence upon a single word is very apparent.

E. P. Morris.

### ΙΙΙ.-ΣΧΗΜΑ ΠΙΝΔΑΡΙΚΟΝ.

The present investigation is thought to be necessary, owing to the unscientific treatment which the σχημα Πινδαρικόν has received in many grammars and editions. The name has been used as a convenient label for more than 50 passages-examples of concord, regular and irregular, of various kinds. Whether it be a case of an old plural form of a verb mistaken for a singular, or an impersonal verb or singular copulative verb joined with a plural complement, or a change of construction to a simpler form, we get grammars old and new, and editions up to the last four years, using the name σχημα Πινδαρικόν as if it were an explanation, and quoting as parallels cases that have been long cleared up or cases that show a totally distinct nature. In the following lists, for completeness, I have brought forward many passages which have been already properly explained, as well as many which have not, because scholars such as Sandys, Tyrrell, Campbell and Abbott have helped in recent years to perpetuate unscientific explanations. For example, the following bald comment is what is usually found in editions both German and English (from a recent Germ. edition of Aeschines in Ctesiph. §185): 'σχημα Πενδαρικόν: das Verbum geht in den meisten Fällen dem Subjekt voran.' This dictum will be seen to apply to no more than one-quarter of the examples usually grouped under this head. Again, the name should be given up when it is seen that very few of the examples cited are to be found in Pindar, and the passages cited from Pindar are found to be of very diverse character, admitting various explanations. But it is still more important that the phrases 'this idiom,' 'this syntactical figure,' should be no longer applied without discrimination to the various passages.

A convenient division of the passages treated is this: I. Those in which points of accidence have to be considered; and II. Those which turn on points of syntax.

I. The first set of examples which have long been quoted by grammars as containing a singular verb with a plural subject shows us what is nothing but an old plural verb-form— $\hbar \nu$ ; v.

Hesiod, Theog. 321, 825, 146; Simonides 165 [225]; Inscription of 475 B. C. on a Hermes, in Aeschines in Ctesiph. 185; Sophocles, Trach. 520; Eur. Ion 1146; Epicharmus 82, 52 (Ahrens 28) in Athenaeus VII 288b, Epicharmus 30, 31, 38, 49 in Athenaeus 307c; and Aristoph. Lysistr. 1260—a total of 13 examples, of which the last 7 are distinctly Doric Greek.

When Ahrens had shown in 1843 (II 326) that  $\hbar \nu$  in some of the above examples was a 3d plural form, we should not have expected to find these passages quoted as often as they have been in support of supposed cases of the σχημα Πινδαρικόν to be considered later.  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \nu}$  is the natural contraction of the original Greek form hav (Meyer) or tav (Morph. Unters. IV, p. 293) from the I. E. e-s-nt, corresponding to the Skr. asan, Boeotian map-enav. The revived form how does not occur in Hesiod (for Op. 111 is rejected on other grounds), Pindar and Theocritus; hence the only two examples of it in Homer are due to late rewriting of the lines Il. 3, 15 and Od. 1, 27. The rareness of toar (twice in Il., once in Od.) also leads us to conclude that the popular repetition of Homer, and to some extent of other poets, has weeded out the instances of  $\hat{\eta}_{\nu}$  for the 3d pers. plur. Possibly such a correction has taken place in such passages of Homer and Hesiod as Hes. Scut. Her. 246, where he suits as well as four.

In Hes. Theog. 146, an example hitherto unnoticed, we get rid of the difficulty of the F by reading  $\hat{\eta}_{\nu}$   $\hat{\epsilon}_{n}$  $\hat{\epsilon}_{\nu}$   $\hat{\epsilon}_{\rho\gamma\sigma\iota s}$  instead of  $\hat{\eta}_{\sigma\alpha\nu}$   $\hat{\epsilon}_{n}$  $\hat{\epsilon}_{\rho\gamma\sigma\iota s}$ , if the line be old.

In Soph. Trachin. 520 the simplest explanation is that Sophocles was consciously using an archaic or Doric form, perhaps partly for artistic reasons, for  $\hbar\nu$  is twice used before and once afterwards at the beginning of each clause.

In Eur. Ion 1146, ἐνῆν δ' ὑφανταὶ γράμμασιν τοιαίδ' ὑφαί, we are compelled either to believe that Eur. like Sophocles chose to use what he knew to be an old plural form (for we cannot suppose him to have been ignorant of the use of ἢν in Doric or in Hesiod) or resort to the explanation that a first thought such as ἐνῆν δ' ὑφαντὰ γράμματα was changed and amplified, and that ἐνῆν was kept for metrical reasons.

In Lucian, Amores, p. 410,  $\hat{\eta}\nu$  δ'  $\hat{\nu}\pi\hat{\nu}$  ταῖε ἄγαν παλινσκίοιε  $\hat{\nu}\lambda$ αῖε  $\hat{\nu}\lambda$ α  $\hat{\nu}\lambda$ αῖε  $\hat{\nu}\lambda$ α  $\hat{\nu}$ 

copyist, each of which hypotheses is difficult to believe, it must be a mere slip. In the former case such passages as those mentioned above, Hes. Theog. 321, 825, Soph. Trach. 520, would be the authorities for the usage of singular verb with a following plural noun. It seems impossible to look on  $\hbar \nu = \hbar \sigma a \nu$  as a survival in

popular speech through the kown times.

Analogous to the above in one respect are the foll. passages: Eur. Hipp. 1255: αλαί κέκρανται συμφοραί νέων κακών. Pind. Pyth. 9, 33 [57]: φόβφ δ' οὐ κεχείμανται φρένες. Xen. R. Equ. 5, 5: κέκλινται τρίχες. Dem. 22, §66 and 24, §173 (p. 754): πολλών ρητόρων οἷ παρὰ τούτοισι κέκρινται. In the first two passages emendations have been usually adopted in the face of complete agreement of the MSS. But is it not satisfactory to suppose that like the early grammarians and copyists, who have not varied the text in these cases, the authors used κέκρανται and κεχείμανται as third plural forms on the analogy of λέλυνται, μέμνηνται, etc.? It is probable that there were many such usages in early colloquial Greek. wrongly supposed singular verb-form is seen in (Hom.) Hymns, Ceres 280, ξανθαί δὲ κόμαι κατενήνοθεν ὅμους, where no doubt the writer took the form as a plural from a similarity to such forms as ἄνεθεν διέκριθεν ἀπέσσυθεν; though an examination of the passages where ἐπενήνοθεν and κατενήνοθεν are used in Homer and Hesiod shows that none of them could be misread as having -ενήνοθεν as a plural form.

Aeschylus, Persae 49, is a case for restoration of original reading: στεῦται δ' ἱεροῦ Τμώλου πελάται | ζύγου ἀμφιβαλεῖν δούλιου Ἑλλάδι. Here στεῦνται was the original—most MSS give it—and the copyists, like the Schol., who calls it an example of the σχ. Πινδ., changed it to στεῦται, knowing that only that 3d pers. sing. form is found in Homer. But such an extension of Homeric usage is perfectly natural to all post-Homeric writers. Paley says, 'in this case, as the metre equally admits στεῦνται, the singular could not have proceeded from an emendator.' Surely no emendation is more to be expected from pedantic copyists or grammarians.

Four passages with πάρα have been cited as examples: Eur. Med. 441: σοὶ δ' οὕτε πατρὸς δόμοι . . . πάρα. Aesch. Eumen. 31: κεὶ πάρ' Ἑλλήνων τινές. Ar. Ach. 862: ὑμὲς δ' ὅσοι Θείβαθεν αὐληταὶ πάρα. Ar. Ach. 1091: αὶ πόρναι πάρα. In these commentators have persistently denied that πάρα can represent πάρεισι, but why it cannot no one has yet explained. They must be all following some

original who pointed out that πάρα with plural subjects is unusual, and then chose to call it impossible. Surely it was natural for Greeks to use it when required, as they used ἔνι for ἔνεισιν as well as for ἔνεστι; see Odyss. 21, 288, ἔνι τοι φρένες οὐδ' ἡβαιαί.

Archimedes, de Helic. Prop. XXIV, p. 244, l. 35 (ed. Torelli), καὶ ἀναγέγραπται ἀπὸ πασῶν ὁμοῖοι τομέες, can certainly not be classed as a conscious mannerism or imitation of previous authors. Is it not a Doric relic of an old 3d plur. form, corresponding to γεγραψάται on the Tab. Heracl. 1, 121, perhaps coming in here from popular speech? It is noteworthy that 44 lines later we have καὶ ἀναγεγράφονται ἀπὸ πασᾶν ὁμοῖοι τομέες, where the original 3d plur. has been assimilated to the present tense 3d plur. formation; but our copyist's trustworthiness cannot be relied on.

Two more passages of Hesiod need a little explanation: Scut. 245: ἄνδρες δ', οἱ πρεσβῆες ἔσαν, γῆρας τε μέμαρπεν, has been cited as an example by some who have taken μέμαρπεν as singular for plural, and translate as Gaisford—'who had reached old age.' No parallel to such a sense of μάρπτω has been found. The phrase must have been modelled on Odyss. 24, 390, ἐπεὶ κατὰ γῆρας ἔμαρψεν, or a similar phrase, and the clause is an additional paratactic clause: 'and old age seized on them.' Those who take the reading μέμαρπον, which is not so good, can say in defence that the author modelled it on the line from the Odyssey above, which he misread as 'seized on old age.' In Hes. Theog. 790, ῥέει . . . ΄ Ὠκεανοῖο κέρας · . . . ἐννέα μεν . . . εἰλιγμένος εἰς ἄλα πίπτει, discarding Paley's 'simpler meaning,' we see that ἐννέα (μοῦραι) is in apposition to 'Ὠκεανός with which είλιγμένος agrees.

To Pindar are attributed 8 examples, in most of which the best authorities have changed the old reading, and other methods of clearing up the difficulty are possible. In Olymp. XI (X) 6 all MSS but one give:

μελιγάρυες υμνοι υστέρων ἀρχαὶ λόγων τέλλεται καὶ πιστὸν υρκιον μεγαλαις ἀρεταις.

A gives  $\partial \rho \chi \partial u$ . Christ and Gildersleeve take the reading of A, 'and the example disappears.' It is not strange that  $\partial \rho \chi \partial u$  became the usual reading; a reciter or copyist would easily assimilate it to the neighboring plural  $\partial \mu \nu \partial u$ . Others who accept  $\partial \rho \chi \partial u$  have suggested that  $\tau \partial u \partial u$  is due to the thought of the coming singular  $\partial \rho \kappa \partial u$ . With either of these legitimate explanations the example is disposed of.

In Pyth. X 71, ἐν δ' ἀγαθοῖσι κεῖται πατρώῖαι κεδναὶ πολίων κυβερνάσιες, for κεῖται, the authority of most MSS is accepted by the grammarians—down to Thompson, 1883, but rejected by Christ (1882) and Gildersleeve (1885), who read κεῖνται. It is certainly better to accept κεῖνται. Or, to suggest another explanation, is κεῖται a relic of the old plural κέαται οτ κείαται, both of which occur in Homer?

A fragment of Pindar, IV 3, 16 (45, 16), is supposed to contain two examples. The best reading to take is Christ's:

τότε βάλλεται, τότ' ἐπ' ἀμβρόταν χθόν' ἐραταὶ των φόβαι ῥόδα τε κόμαισι μίγνυται, ἀχεῖτ' ὀμφὰ μελέων σὺν αὐλοῖς, ἀχεῖτε Σεμέλαν έλικάμπυκα χοροί.

βάλλεται stands alone with its subject unexpressed, perhaps thought of as ια, and then the thought is amplified to ιων φόβαι ρόδα τε with a singular verb agreeing with its nearer subject ρόδα, as is often found, v. Jebb on Soph. O. C. 7, 8. In 18, the return to the 2d person plural, ἀχεῖτε, is not unnatural for Pindar or Greek, and ἀχεῖτ' ὀμφᾶ is preferable to ἀχεῖται ὀμφαὶ; both ἀχεῖτε's satisfy the requirements of sense and rhythm; they have support from the reading of a Paris MS given by Schneidewin, οἰχνεῖτ' ὀμφᾶ.

Three more fragments of Pindar remain to be considered. In IV 6 (225) Christ reads:

κλῦθ' 'Αλαλά, πολέμου θύγατερ, ἐγχέων προοίμιον, ἢ θύεται ἄνδρες ὅπερ πόλιος τὸν ἰρόθυτον θάνατον.

Kirchhoff reads alθύεται. With the former reading, we must suppose ἄνδρες corrupt, or else the composer used θύεται metri gratia. It is best, however, to punctuate after alθύεται, and take ἄνδρες as the subject to some verb in a subsequent line lost.

In 265 and 285 we find: λάχει βαρυφθεγκτῶν ἀγελαι λεόντων, and μελιρρόθων ἀνθέων ἔπεται πλόκαμοι. In the absence of the context we may be content to leave these lines in their obscurity; surely nothing ought to be built on such a poor basis as these two examples treasured up in the pages of an unscientific grammarian.

Finally, in Pindar, Pyth. IV 57, we have a passage that seems hopeless: ἢ ῥα Μηδείας ἐπέων στίχες.

- a). The Schol. takes  $\mathring{\eta}$  as equal to  $\mathring{\epsilon}\phi\eta$  and calls it  $\sigma\chi\mathring{\eta}\mu a$  Πινδαρ
  - b). Some say  $\tilde{\eta}$  is the imperf. plur. of  $\epsilon l\mu l$  here.

- c). Böckh read al pa, 'these (were) . . .'
- d). Paley read ἢν (=ἔφασαν) plural of ἢ in Homer's ἢ ῥα καὶ . . .
- e). Christ reads i pa.

Gildersleeve says ' $\hat{\eta}$   $\hat{\rho}a$ , the Homeric asseveration, well suited to the solemn oracular passage '; and says the copula  $\hat{\epsilon}\sigma\tau i$ ,  $\hat{\epsilon}i\sigma i$  is rare in Pindar; but here the imperfect is wanted. Pindar only uses  $\hat{\eta}$   $\hat{\rho}a$  in two other passages: as P. 9, 38, where it introduces a question as in Homer, and P. 11, 38, where it introduces the first of two alternatives, as in Homer also. So we are entitled to say that these words at the close of a speech: "Verily the rows of words (oracular verses) of Medea," are strange and abrupt even for Pindar. We may doubt, if not finally reject, a, b, c and d of the above explanations; but it would perhaps be presumptuous to declare any reading final.

II. In the case of Herodot. 1, 26, ἔστι δὲ μεταξὺ τῆς τε παλαιῆς πόλιος ἡ τότε ἐπολιορκέετο καὶ τοῦ νηοῦ ἐπτὰ στάδιοι · and 7, 34, ἔστι δὲ ἐπτὰ στάδιοι ἐξ 'Αβύδου ἐς τὴν ἀπάντιον, the verb comes first, and with it at the same time in the writer's mind is present a general notion as the subject, not στάδιοι, which is the complement, but τὸ μῆκος οτ τὸ διάστημα. Cp. 2, 6, αὐτῆς δὲ τῆς Αἰγύπτου ἐστὶ μῆκος τὸ παρὰ θάλασσαν ἐξήκοντα σχοῦνοι. The fact that the place described in 7, 34 was commonly known as τὸ ἐπταστάδιον can have nothing to do with the use of the singular verb. In speaking a Greek might often use such a form of expression, and when written down, if it did occur to him that the singular sounded strange with the plural following, he would allow it to stand as being countenanced by popular usage, just as it sanctioned ἔστιν οῖ κ. τ. λ. Parallels in modern languages are plentiful: as 'it is twelve miles to . . .'; 'il y a cent mêtres'; 'il est cent usages qui . . .'

As in Herod. 7, 34, so we find in Aristoph. Vespae 58, ἡμῶν γὰρ οὐκ ἔστ' . . . δούλω διαρριπτοῦντε, no case of a singular verb with plural subject, but there is to be supplied a subject to ἐστί like τὸ δρᾶμα, δούλω being the complement. We have more examples of ἐστί followed by plural complements in Plato, Rep. 5, 463 A, Euthydemus 302 C, and Gorgias 500 D.

The above usages were as natural as any form of concord to Greeks who were used to ἔστιν οἷ, ἔστιν οὖς (cf. καὶ ξένους ἀν πολλοὺς εἰσενεγκεῖν, ἔστι δ' ἀς ἀν καὶ πόλεις, in Xenophon), and even ἔστιν ἐν οἶς, as Thuc. 5, 25; but we should note that εἰσὶν οἷ occurs in Thuc. 6, 10; and rarely ἦν οἷ for ἦσαν οἷ, as Xen. Anab. 1, 5, 7, ἦν τούτων τῶν σταθμῶν οὖς πάνυ μακροὺς ἥλαυνεν.

To be contrasted with Herod. 7, 34 are certain passages such as Isocr. Panegyr. p. 543, Plato, Leg. 5, p. 732 E, and Hdt. 6, 112, 3, which show real examples of disagreement of verb and subject: the verb being attracted to agree with the complement because it stands nearer than—in fact before—the subject. In Plato, Rep. 8, 562 the order is different, but it is the same case of attraction.

The passage often quoted, Thuc. 3, 36, προσξυνεβάλετο οὐκ ἐλάχιστον της δρμης αί Πελοποννησίων νηες ές Ίωνίαν έκείνοις βοηθοί τολμήσασαι παρακινδυνεύσαι, where Kühner and many editors have gone astray, is capable of easy explanation. There is a change of construction from the expected cumbrous form 70 and the infin. into a simpler and more convenient form of expression, the noun plainly put with the participle. al vies stands just as occisus Caesar is used for the English abstract notion 'the death of Caesar'; the difficulty lying in the English rather than in the Greek, which was not fettered by formulated rules which would prevent naturalness of expression. The chances of a second reading causing a change in the form of the sentence to avoid the apparent collocation of singular with plural would vary with the temperament of the author. For similar cases cp. Thuc. 4, 26, αἴτιον δ' ἦν οἱ Λακεδαιμόνιοι προειπόντες, and 8, 9, αἴτιον ἢν with a participle. From this author one more passage remains to be considered: 2, 3: ἀμάξας καθίστασαν ίν' ἀντὶ τείχους η. On this Matthiae actually said, 'the author' had probably ἄρματα in his mind'; if Thucydides thought at all about a logical subject for η, it would be τὸ σταύρωμα or ὁ φραγμὸς or the like.

One grammarian has said 'the ἐστὶ or γίγνεται always comes first.' Three passages showing a part of the verb γίγνομαι may here be taken:

Andoc. 1, 45: ἀφ' ὧν ἐμοὶ ξενίαι καὶ φιλότητες πρὸς πολλούς καὶ βασιλέας καὶ πόλεις καὶ ἄλλους ἰδία ξένους γεγένηται.

Plato, Sympos. 188 B: καὶ γὰρ πάχναι καὶ χάλαζαι καὶ ἐρυσῖβαι ἐκ πλεονεξίας καὶ ἀκοσμίας περὶ ἄλληλα τῶν τοιούτων γίγνεται ἐρωτικῶν.

Plato, Rep. 363 A: ἵνα δοκοῦντι δικαίφ εἶναι γίγνηται ἀπὸ τῆς δόξης ἀρχαί τε καὶ γάμοι καὶ ὅσαπερ Γλαύκων διῆλθεν.

The simplest explanation of these three passages is to say that the use of the singular verb is a slip; the subjects being many, and the verb coming at a distance, the singular is used as if the whole of the names of things were taken as a neuter plural. This is satisfactory for the first two passages, where the verb comes

after the subjects; but in the last of the three it is possible that when the verb  $\gamma i \gamma \nu \eta \tau a \iota$  was written, the subjects were thought of differently, perhaps in some neuter plural form, which was then changed into detail. With regard to the second passage, it should not be forgotten that Sauppe has ejected  $\gamma i \gamma \nu \epsilon \tau a \iota$ , and the whole sentence is only an amplification of the preceding, so that the two sentences have probably been tampered with.

So in Plato, Timaeus 45 A, σκέλη μὲν οὖν χεῖρές τε ταύτη καὶ διὰ ταῦτα προσέφυ πᾶσιν, we must take χεῖρές τε (unless it be ejected as a later addition) as a later addition in thought; or the thought of σκέλη outweighed the expected influence of the after-thought. Again, it is possible to consider the whole subject as practically the same as one concrete neuter plural. With the former explanation compare Il. 17, 386 and 23, 380, quoted later.

We next consider Eur. Bacch. 1350: alaî δέδοκται, πρέσβυ, τλήμουες φυγαί. The verb δέδοκται generally is used impersonally, or with neuter pronouns. The construction with δέδοκται here is of similar nature with the construction in Hdt. 7, 34 (above), and in δέδοκται έμοὶ φυγεῖν the infinitive may be called appositional or explanatory of the idea contained in δέδοκται; in the same way φυγαὶ stands here in apposition, and is not to be looked on as the subject. If any second thoughts arose in Euripides' mind on the form of the construction, he was debarred from using the plural δεδογμέναι εἰσίν. Apparently Euripides could not have written τλημόνως φυγεῖν: τλημόνως in the passages we know never means 'miserably,' but always 'patiently.' Το suppose, as Kühner did, that δέδοκται = δέδοκνται, 'mit ausgefallenem ν,' is quite impossible.

Perhaps ἡάδιον δ' ἀπαλλαγαί, Med. 1375, helps to bear out the above remarks, and also Thuc. 3, 36 (above); but we can hardly class with them, as some have done, Phoen. 963, δήλον οἷ γ'

έμοι λόγοι.

It is impossible to believe that Euripides was ignorant of  $\hat{\eta}\nu$  as a plural form when he wrote Ion 1146, or that he deliberately extended the usage of a singular verb with a plural subject, with the passages treated above, such as Hesiod, Theog. 321, 825, and Sophocles, Trach. 520 as justifications, or that he was aware of a condition that the singular verb must precede when so used. In

Helen. 1358:

μέγα τοι δύναται νεβρών παμποίκιλοι στολίδες, κισσοῦ τε στεφθεῖσα χλόα νάρθηκας εἰς ἱερούς . . . we must explain by supposing that the first thought was different, perhaps was μέγα τοι δύναται χλόα, this being interrupted by an amplification νεβρῶν . . . στολίδες, which fitted into its place well metrically, and so δύναται was not changed for metrical reasons. The only possible alternative is to take δύναται as used in an impersonal way, and take στολίδες and χλόα as complements; thus the passage would be connected with those above with ἔστι, Hdt. 1, 26 and 7, 34. With the former explanation, however, we can compare the looseness of grammar due to a change of expression, seen in Plato, Theaet. 173 D: σπουδαί δ' έταιρειῶν . . . καὶ σύνοδοι καὶ δεῖπνα καὶ σὺν αὐλητρίσι κῶμοι-οὐδὲ ὄναρ πράττειν προσίσταται αὐτοῖς. The breaking off the sentence after κῶμοι is quite natural to the unstudied ease of Platonic dialogue; in English conversation the same interruption is quite common.

We may refer here to two passages in Homer containing similar inaccuracies of grammar; Il. 17, 386:

καμάτω δε καὶ ίδρω . . .
γούνατα τε κνημαί τε πόδες θ' ὑπένερθεν έκάστου
χειρές τ' ὀφθαλμοί τε παλάσσετο μαρναμένοιν '

Il. 23, 380: πνοιῆ δ' Εὐμήλοιο μετάφρενον εὐρέε τ' ὧμω | θέρμετο. The verb in each case was taken by the writer as agreeing with the first subject; the later words being added as afterthoughts. It is possible too that the exigences of metre help to account for the singular, παλάσσοντο being inadmissible.

Again, it seems impossible to believe that Euripides deliberately joined a singular verb with a plural noun in Phoen. 349:

ανα δε θηβαίαν | πόλιν εσιγάθη σας εσοδοι νύμφας,

where the best MSS give εἴσοδοι, the next best εἴσοδον, and also one of the good copies; many have εἴσοδος, which Porson read. Taking ἔσοδος to be the original, we account for the change to the plural as being an early copyist's slip in the first instance, which was perpetuated by other copyists and grammarians ready to see an example of the supposed σχῆμα Πινδαρικόν; possibly the ι for ς was a mistake in connection with the ι οf εἴσοδος, a marginal gloss. If we are not content to read ἔσοδος, as Dindorf and nearly all since Seidler have read, we must fall back on the somewhat weak explanation that the first thought was ἐσιγάθη ἡ σὴ νύμφη ἐσιοῦσα, which was changed, as being too prosy, to the plural ἔσοδοι νύμφας, rather than ἔσοδος, possibly to avoid the coming together of three

words ending in s. In this case the passage would be classed with Thucyd. 3, 36 (above).

A difficult passage is seen in Hipponax 29 [12]:

δύ' ἡμέραι γυναικός έστιν ήδισται | όταν γαμή τις, κάκφέρη τεθνηκυίαν.

All MSS have  $\partial \sigma_{II}$  except one, which has  $\partial \sigma_{II}$ ; Gaisford, Bergk (1st ed. and 3d ed., 1883) read  $\partial \sigma_{II}$ . There is no special reason why  $\partial \sigma_{II}$  should have arisen if  $\partial \sigma_{II}$  had been the author's word, unless all the MSS have one original, which have a copyist's slip, perpetuated by grammarians, glad to find support for their  $\partial \chi \eta_{II}$   $\partial \sigma_{II}$   $\partial \sigma_{II}$   $\partial \sigma_{II}$  If this explanation be inadequate, it remains a mystery why popular recitation of the lines should not have altered the word; and if Hipponax really consciously put  $\partial \sigma_{II}$  after a plural subject, it is strange that it should never occur again in his writings or those of any other lyric poet. The better way out of the difficulty is to follow the best editors and read  $\partial \sigma_{II}$ , rather than allow this passage to be put down as one of the irreducible minimum.

It will now have been seen how various is the nature of the examples set down as instances of the σχημα Πινδαρικόν. Το draw a few conclusions: the case of  $\hat{\eta}_{\nu}$  with plural subject is perfectly clear. Many, too, of the passages quoted in Section I of this paper need no further remark; some of them have been mentioned for no intrinsic difficulty, but merely because they have so often been cited to bolster up other passages. If in one or two the explanations given are not fully satisfactory, they can at least be said to hold the field at present, with the consent of many authorities. Again, we may at once set aside, as needing no further mention in connection with this subject, all the numerous disjunctive examples (as Pindar, Pyth. 10, 41, νόσοι δ' οὔτε γῆρας οὐλόμενον κέκραται), which are only referred to here because they have been so frequently quoted, though well classed apart by Kühner. We may set aside, too, all such passages as Soph. O. C. 7, 8, ai πάθαι με χώ χρόνος ξυνών μακρός διδάσκει, where the singular verb agrees with the nearer of two subjects, a plural and a singular, on which Professor Jebb's note is adequate.

While many of the passages mentioned in Section II of this paper can be dismissed as admitting of simple explanations, such as by restoration of the original reading, or those given on Thuc. 3, 36, Herod. 1, 26, of others we can only say that, if the addition of words by an afterthought is not held to be satisfactory, we must take refuge in the fact that the singular is the

generic and the plural is the particular; but the number of passages that need to be explained thus is very small. And be it noticed, the oft-repeated dictum that the verb comes first has been shown above to be wrong. Enough has been said above of the attraction of a verb to its complement, and the conjunction of to and a plural complement; and no longer ought we to find in grammars this use of the copulative verb joined to the examples with ordinary verbs, treated above. The connection, too, of the physical examples with this use of total cease. The few hopeless passages, such as Pindar, Pyth. 4, 57 and [Pindar] Fragments 225, 265 will perhaps never be cleared up; but in themselves they are slight foundations on which to build in the grammars a paragraph of examples of quasi-false concords of multitudinous forms.

Finally, the name  $\sigma_{\chi}\hat{\eta}\mu a$   $\Pi_{\nu}\delta a\rho_{\nu}\kappa\delta_{\nu}$  should be given up when it is seen that it is unjust to the memory of Pindar, and unsuitable to what comes under the head of many different  $\sigma_{\chi}\hat{\eta}\mu a\tau a$ ; and grammars should note the extended use of  $\hat{\eta}_{\nu}$  as a plural form, and omitting the doubtful examples, merely refer to the use of  $\hat{\epsilon}\sigma\tau\hat{\iota}$  with a plural complement, and the attraction of verbs to agree with

complements.

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## IV.-STYLE AND CHRONOLOGY IN CORNEILLE.

I.

The method of determining the chronology of an author's works-and also their genuineness-by their style has become a favorite one with students of the literatures of antiquity. In a recent number of this Journal (Vol. X, pp. 470-480), the editor, discussing Ritter's Untersuchungen über Plato, recommends to American scholars especially, as suited both to the national temperament and to the means at their disposal, the application of this method to Greek and Roman writers. Before engaging, however, in the mechanical pastime of counting gerunds and comparing connectives, the courage of the investigator would be materially increased could he be assured that such labor would lead in the majority of cases to definite results. Assurance on this point will, in the ordinary course of events, proceed but slowly from the field hitherto under inspection. The uncertainty of texts, the meagreness of biographical details—often indeed entirely wanting-the lack of contemporaneous records, both social and grammatical, combine to retard a concensus of opinion in even the most favorable case. If, on the other hand, the investigation can be transferred to more recent times, to a literature surrounded by abundant historical documents, and to a writer whose works are accurately dated, the qualities of the statistical method can be quickly gauged.

Of modern literatures that of France has experienced changes, the periods of which are unusually well defined. Both literature and language have shared in these transitions. The breaking up of the mediaeval inflections in the first part of the fourteenth century was followed by the introduction of Latinisms in the last part. The reform of the Pléiade in the sixteenth century, to be succeeded by that of the classicists in the seventeenth, occasioned not less than three generations of stylistic uncertainty. The more recent Romantic movement, headed by Rousseau, and the invasion of science mark by decades and almost by years the productions of the present age.

The literary form has varied with the thought as well. In the twelfth century Wace, representing the old school of simple notions and concise expression, competed in a chronicle of the Norman dukes for the favor of Henry II with Benoît de Sainte-More, of the new school of romantic sentiment and elaborate description. A century later the Roman de la Rose reveals its double authorship and its source in different worlds by the transformation of the mediaeval love lyric of Guillaume de Lorris into the satirical pre-renaissance manifesto of Jean de Meun. In the revival of learning, one and the same author, Clément Marot, starting from the lines laid down by tradition, passes through the refinement of Italian elegance and gains force from the new religious tendencies. Malherbe himself had his first and second manner. Henrietta of England caused Corneille and Racine to repeat, in their rival plays on Titus and Berenice, the experience of Wace and Benoît.

Of the periods of French literature the first part of the seventeenth century is particularly interesting for the conscious changes in the language of the educated classes. It saw the gradual triumph of the principle of order championed by Malherbe, the rise and fall of the Hôtel de Rambouillet, the beginning of the French Academy. Linguistic criticism was the order of the day. Documentary information regarding this half century is also The fluctuations in language and taste, seen in all the literary productions of the time, can be traced here in the successive works of a single author, Pierre Corneille. A dramatist, and therefore directly dependent on popular favor, Corneille showed himself peculiarly sensitive to the current views on language. In the course of his active career (1629-1674) he published often, separately and together, his various tragedies and comedies, and in 1660 revised and modified the editions which had previously appeared. We have thus a twofold indication of grammatical change in the works of Corneille: that given by a comparison of the successive plays with one another, and that found in each play by a comparison of the successive variants. A means of testing results thus gained is afforded by the linguistic observations of Vaugelas (1647).2

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The edition of Corneille which furnishes all the readings is that of Marty-Laveaux in the series Les Grands Ecrivains, Paris, 1862, 12 vols. 8vo.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Remarques sur la Langue Française par Vaugelas. Nouvelle édition par A. Chassang, Versailles and Paris, 1880, 2 vols. 8vo.

For conciseness and to avoid repetition this article will consider only the material derived from a reading of the variants, adding by way of interest references to confirmatory passages in Vaugelas.<sup>1</sup>

#### II.

Considering, then, the changes of style as affected by language and grammatical constructions alone, we note first:<sup>2</sup>

(a) Changes in orthography in the various revisions by Corneille. In nouns: cavalier (chevalier, Le Cid 82, 86), champ (camp, Le Cid 1434, 1439). In adjectives: bizarre (bigearre to 1663, L'Ill. com. 1430; see V. II 5). In verbs: arroser (arrouser, Rod. 1526; see V. I 352), avenir (generally advenir to 1660, Mélite 1474), exclurait (exclurrait, Nic. 176), trouver (treuver in the finite moods of the earlier plays, La Suivante 10, 136, etc.) In adverbs: donc (donques, Mélite 1194, La Suivante 487), même (mêmes, Pol. 562; see V. I 79-81). In prepositions: avec (avecque to 1650, Clit. 42, And. 868).

(b) Of antiquated words and forms replaced by Corneille with later equivalents we note the substantives cejourd'hui (Mélite 1121, Le Menteur 763), dam (Mélite 1453), heur (Mélite 699, L'Ill. com. 814, often retained); the adjectives bastant (to 1639, Mélite 644, Médée 534), bourrelle (to 1639, Mélite 1363, Médée 801), nompareil (to 1637, La Veuve 1133, La Suivante 629); the verbs bailler (to 1637, Mélite 534, La Veuve 173; see V. II 39), courre (L'Ill. com. 676; see V. I 406), galantiser (La Gal. du P. 336), gésir (to 1656, Mélite 72, Horace 469), the contracted forms of the fut. and cond. of laisser (lairrai, etc., to 1644, Mélite 224, Le Cid 1695; see V. I 210); the adverb dextrement (to 1642, La Suivante 94, often retained); the interjection sus (Mélite 393, La Veuve 1081, often retained).

<sup>1</sup> The general subject of French grammar during the period in question is treated in Die französische Syntax des XVII Jahrhunderts, A. Haase, Oppeln, 1888, 8vo. See also article by Haase in Zeitschrift für neufranzösische Sprache und Literatur, Vol. XI Abhandlungen, pp. 203 ss. The lexicons published in Les Grands Ecrivains series contain also much valuable information and are, as a rule, preceded by a chapter on the grammar and syntax of the author under discussion.

<sup>2</sup> The abbreviations are: And. (Andromède), Clit. (Clitandre), Hér. (Héraclius), L'Ill. com. (l'Illusion comique), La Gal. du P. (La Galerie du Palais), La Pl. R. (La Place Royale), Nic. (Nicomède), Perth. (Pertharite), Pol. (Polyeucte), Rod. (Rodogune), La Suite (La Suite du Menteur), Thé. (Théodore), V. (Vaugelas).

(c) Changes in gender were going on, as in the nouns aide (m. in Mélite 91, Clit. 90), amour (f. in Pol. 77, And. 934, m. in Rod. 585; see V. II 107). Also in agreement of adjective and pronoun, as autre with feminine antecedent (m. in Mélite 1425, Pol. 499, etc.)

(d) An interesting trait of the second quarter of the seventeenth century is revealed by the care which Corneille takes to express his thought more exactly. Thus, words loose in meaning, found in his early plays, give way to those more rigidly defined in the revisions. He substitutes in nouns, joie for aise (Mélite 201), or replaces the latter by an equivalent (Horace 316); pensée encroaches on penser (Mélite 1250), or the latter returns to the infinitive (L'Ill. com. 1265, often retained as a noun); in verbs, consommer becomes consumer (Mélite 574, Le Cid 489; see V. I 408), impourvue is corrected to imprévue (by 1644, Mélite 684, L'Ill. com. 1632), informer to demander (La Suivante 329, Le Cid 64); lâcher is found at first (1637) for relacher (La Pl. R. 55), in the third sing. peut for sait (La Veuve 1469), savoir for connaître (La Suite 822), songer for penser (L'Ill. com. 930; see V. I 165), soupirer for déplorer (Rod. 1614), tenir for garder (La Veuve 991), but garder parole for tenir p. (Don Sanche 645; cf. Perth. 841); je peux is replaced by je puis (1644, La Gal. du P. 1; see V. I 142); the former prepositions dedans, dessous, dessus were gradually restricted to their use as adverbs, the first rigorously from 1648, the latter two less carefully (Mélite 1752, Cinna 531, Le Cid 1579); the more common prepositions were often interchanged: à for de (La Pl. R. 691, Hér. 475, 660), à for en (Horace 402, Hér. 48); de for par (Mélite 739), en for à (L'Ill. com. 1420, Pompée 521); in conjunctions combien que was dropped (La Suivante 1103), d'abord que changed to sitôt que (Rod. 289), devant que suppressed (Cinna 792) or remains (see V. I 435), paravant que replaced by avant que (La Veuve 735, etc.); in adverbs comme sometimes yields to comment (La Suivante 548, Hér. 850; see V. II 12) or to que (Mélite 304, Horace 266), and lors to alors (Clit. 1623, Horace 1219; see V. I 360); of adverbial phrases à tout le moins disappears (Mélite 78, L'Ill. com. 1516), au demeurant is dropped (La Suivante 315; see V. II 5), au moins often gives way to du moins (Mélite 1678, Clit. 990), à la foule is replaced by en foule (Thé. 189, Pompée 1655), à faute de by faute de (Mélite 172, La Suivante 1253; see V. II 202); du depuis (Le Menteur 1701; see V. I 287) and de pied coi (La Pl.

R. 889) disappear, as does en cervelle (to 1634, Mélite 1152, etc.); verbal phrases are more rigidly distinguished: donner ordre is later corrected to mettre ordre (Pol. 1714), faire doute to douter (1634, La Veuve 1860), régler par or pour to régler sur (1644, Pompée 1594), and traiter en to traiter de (Pol. 134, Perth. 1802).

(e) Among constructions which became, during the career of Corneille, wholly or partly obsolete are the adjective phrases: un seul (Florame) for F. seul (La Suivante 1273), que de vous pareille for que vous de p. (La Suivante 446); the pronominal phrase un chacun (to 1634, Mélite 537); and in verbs, craindre à for craindre de before dependent infinitive (Thé. 909), croire à for croire with acc. (Mélite 288; see V. II 388), pouvoir without supplementary infinitive (La Gal. du P. 791, Pol. 24).

(f) Other signs of increasing care in the use of grammatical constructions are seen in the mood and tense changes of verbs: the preterit is frequently replaced by the perfect (Mélite 652, Pompée 1487); the subjunctive is often made over to the conditional (La Veuve 748, La Suite 737), the second of two successive imperatives (where the first is allons) is once corrected to an infinitive (Hér. 1916).

(g) The negative is gaining in the revisions of Corneille the place in the sentence which it holds to-day; the popular omission of ne is remedied (La Veuve 628, Horace 1097; see V. I 342), pas is brought before the infinitive it limits (Mélite 48, Rod. 529; see V. II 128), and ne in the phrase il faut plus an infinitive is put after faut (Horace 1572, Pol. 74). In negative phrases Corneille, in his revision of 1660, prefers no ne after de peur que (La Gal. du P. 395, Rod. 538), but inserts it in sans—plus (Rod. 1678). In this connection the later treatment of de without the article after negatives, adverbs of quantity, and certain verbs shows a more polished style (La Pl. R. 1522, Le Cid 1262, Pompée 1618); also after que before an infinitive (Cinna 831).

(h) In regard to the order of verb and pronominal object the variations of Corneille are very noticeable. In the case of two successive imperatives the object of the second is placed after it in 1660 rather than before, as at first (Le Cid 59, Pompée 708). The first edition (1668) of Attila had also the latter construction (v. 1240). The position of the pronoun object of an infinitive directly dependent (without prepositions) on a preceding verb occasioned much trouble to Corneille. In the early plays the

object of the infinitive is almost always found before the principal verb. In 1660, in nine cases out of ten at least, he has changed it to the usual position—before the infinitive as at the present day (Mélite 136, Clit. 42, Horace 157-158, And. 1342, Perth. 742; see V. II 84); but the reverse is also true, particularly when devoir or oser is the principal verb (And. 957, Nic. 810, Othon 203). In the case of inversion of subject, common in the first editions after à peine and aussi, the revision returns to the normal order (La Pl. R. 793, Le Menteur 1559, Thé. 1283).

(i) Inasmuch as the mass of Corneille's works are poetical in form, his improvement in versification can also be adduced as an indication of chronology. In his later editions he is more careful in regard to a hiatus (Le Menteur 936, Hér. 127), but his more noteworthy change is the substitution of a sonorous syllable for the mute e which counted as a syllable (Mélite 18, Clit. 139, Médée 99, Le Cid 731). The rime indicates at times changes in pronunciation, but rather in different plays and not in the variants of the same play.

#### III.

The results thus reached from a study of the most striking alterations in the variants of the works of Corneille would seem to prove conclusively that at times of linguistic and grammatical change the statistical method can be safely followed. Hence the inference would be that in periods when standards of style are fixed there are slight alterations due to the fact that language. like all living organisms, both grows and decays. Certain changes, though few in number, have been noted in the plays of Corneille subsequent to 1660. It is conceivable, however, that a rigid academic style, resting on tradition, might rule for generations the literature of a people, and thus make all intrinsic study unsatisfactory in conclusions, if not absolutely sterile. Here a sure guide could be found alone in semi-literary authors. On the other hand, it is presumable that the authors of antiquity who have survived the ruin of their peoples include the highest talent of their civilizations, and thus mirror, as do all leaders, the phases of the popular mind. The general attribute of blind copying of predecessors in authority could not be said without investigation to characterize the greater part of them.

There are other indications of change to be found in the works of Corneille, and which reveal progress in sentiment. These cannot be cited as proofs applicable everywhere, owing to the fact that all authors, especially those of the subjective schools of philosophical essays and lyric effusions, are not directly subservient from day to day to the public voice. Without entering, therefore, on an extended discussion of the opinions of Corneille as given in his writings, we shall content ourselves with stating that in literature, in politics, in fashion, and in prejudices he vibrated with the Parisian of the rule of Richelieu, of the Fronde, and of the rising years of Louis XIV.

F. M. WARREN.

<sup>1</sup>A study of Corneille, as reflecting in his works the thought and taste of his age, was presented in 1887, by the writer of this article, to the Johns Hopkins University, as a doctor's dissertation.

<sup>2</sup> The last number of the Archiv für das Studium der neueren Sprachen (Vol. LXXXIV, pp. 71 foll.), continues an article by K. Fahrenberg, die Entwickelungsgänge in der Sprache Corneille's (Archiv, Vol. LXXXIII, pp. 129 ff. and p. 273 ff.; Vol. LXXXIV, p. 71), with an exhaustive study of the linguistic and syntactical development of Corneille's works.

# V.—UNCONVENTIONAL USES OF NATURAL IMAGERY IN THE POEMS OF WALTHER VON DER VOGEL-WEIDE.

Wilmanns (Leben, 173) says: 'Walther does not seek for any harmony between summer joys and those of love, nor does he wish to contrast them: he mentions them together, in order to compare their power.' But 99, 6 proves at least a harmony. The poet does not here 'declare summer and winter alike good' (Wilmanns, Gedichte Walthers, 2 aufl. 350). The analogy (då von sol man wizzen daz) is between winter, as representing some among the elliu wîp who should be honored, and summer, as prefiguring die besten, who shall be honored more. 42, 15 f. is a still clearer example. The 'careful' man is to find relief in the thought of 'good women' and of summer's bright days. Wan daz ich mich rihte nach der heide (20) does not, therefore, mean simply that the winter-bound poet 'thinks of summer' (Wilmanns<sup>2</sup>, 210): he is to include guotiu wtp. The walt, in its earliest green, is the object of joy espied by the heath, and represents good women; while the poet expressly reserves for himself the character of the later-blooming heath, blushing at its tardiness. The next stanza then appropriately specializes: frowe, als ich gedenke an dich.

The same editor, in commenting on 64, 13 f., finds the climax of heath, wood and field strange, and gives that as a reason for casting additional doubt on the genuineness of the exquisite song 51, 13. The difficulty admits of adjustment, if Lachmann's idea that the two stanzas are a dialogue (Wechsel) is given up. BC have diu mir ist liep, der bin ich leit (21); E, der—dem bin ich leit; but E, on the other hand, has preserved the stanza, as a whole, better than BC have done. Burdach's view (Reinmar der Alte und Walther von der Vogelweide, 110), that the complaint of the lady is like the oldest 'Frauenstrophen,' and that the poem is therefore among Walther's earliest, calls for no further consideration, if the reading of E be abandoned. The context shows that this should be done: 'However' fine and gay the heath looks in her varied colors, yet for the wood I claim far more lovely things;' still better has it gone with the field.' This is a climax, not of beauty alone, but

<sup>1</sup> swie BC, wie E; cf. also Pfeiffer, Germania, 5, 41.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> dinge BC, as against varwe E.

of beauty that dispenses blessings; and contains hidden praise of his mistress. This is openly avowed in the next stanza: 'the while I sing, I ever find new and befitting praise of her. Let her receive this tribute kindly: another time I shall praise more.' The 'new words of praise' (ein niuwe lop daz ir gezimet) can refer only to the first stanza, where the bright colors of the heath are a token of Summer's labor. But the goddess has then fashioned the vil mêre wünneclicher dinge of the forest, and has crowned her tasks with the fruitful field. There exists a direct parallel between these three and the three things which a perfect woman, according to the minnesinger code, should possess: schene, liebe, tugent.3 These are then partially summed up in the concluding verses: ez tuot in den ougen wol daz man si siht: und daz man ir vil tugende giht, daz tuot wol in den ôren. The correspondences are: schane, heide; liebe (Anmuth), the wünneclichiu dinc of the grove; velt (and wall), tugent.

But while Walther deepens the natural poetical images of flower, field and forest into ethical thought, he returns, on the other hand, to the harmless gayety of the popular and traditional 'Natureingang.' But this gayety, unlike that of the Neidharts and Neifens, has a foundation in thought as well as in ebullitions of feeling, real or feigned; and this thought he delicately varies in new images, and in new forms of old figures. The delight which

<sup>1</sup>Cf. The Stricker's Frauenehre, Z. f. d. A. 7, 508: mir geschiht als einem man geschiht der ein vil grözen walt siht: sol er rehte sagen mære waz an dem walde wære, daz möhte nimmer geschehen (1101). wie wol lobe ich einen walt, då die böume sint ungezalt die all volle tugende stånt unt deste minner niht enhånt, swie vil man ir geniuzet, så si des niht bedriuzet: sine stén mit tugenden geladen, und milte sint åne schaden (1113). boum der tugende (1174). boum von höher kost (1175). According to Wackernagel, Lit. Gesch. § 1 § 79, 21, Stricker borrows from Walther. der sich erjungen wolde såt in diner tugende walde (Wb. 3, 472a). Otto Lüning, Die Natur (1889), p. 148, notes that the epic word tan (in which were no food trees) is scarcely used in the minnesong.

<sup>2</sup> Cf. 50, 5; 92, 19-21; MSH 2, 183b (35); Iwein, 340.

Reinmar represents the other extreme (MF 169, II): was dar umbe, valwent grüene heide? solher dinge vil geschiht; der ich aller muoz gedagen: ich han me ze tuonne danne bluomen klagen. Scherer (Litt. Gesch., 5 Aufl., 205) contrasts Reinmar's attitude with that of his younger contemporary: 'Walther dagegen hat, ohne je Natur und Liebe auf conventionelle Weise zu verbinden, die Jahreszeiten wiederholt besungen und dem allbekannten Stoffe neue Seiten abgewonnen.' But it was not the easy superiority of genius, working with clear intention, that achieved these results. There is every indication that Walther's comparisons from nature are steeped in the simple conventionalism of earlier song. His style lacks entirely the audacity displayed by the metaphor of the Renaissance. But it is none the less a triumph, when his inven-

these afforded the poet, and the value he himself attached to them in his poetry, have not been recognized sufficiently. Hamann (Der Humor Walthers von der Vogelweide, Rostock 1889, p. 20) thinks that 114, 27 da sach ich bluomen striten wider den klê, weder ir lenger wære is 'dem Kinderleben abgelauscht.' Insipid judgment! Walther's range is not that of the modern nursery, though his love-scholasticism (cf. Uhland's 'verliebte Scholastik,' V 62) may have helped people it with his fancy's children. According to Wilmanns (384), the theme of the song last mentioned (114, 23 f.) is a joyous welcome to Spring, addressed by the poet to his mistress and a larger audience, whom he then calls on to share in the jollities to follow. Rieger (61) calls it a spring song, written after illness. Pfeiffer-Bartsch (6 Aufl. 142) find in it sad recollections, and place it in Walther's later years. All the editors suppose the lady to be present, and Rieger tries to reconcile this with the languid tone of sadness pervading the verses. With this I cannot agree. Adopting the reading of E, nû hært irs (25), the first strophe concludes: "Twas there" I saw flowers vying with the clover, which of them were taller. This story I told my lady.' In place of the perfect, as in 118, 36 disen wünneclîchen sanc han ich gesungen miner frowen ze eren. des sol si mir wizzen danc, the preterite is here used, referring to some past not further defined. Wilmanns' rendering (386) 'er hat seiner Frau die Kunde gebracht' is forced. Nor is it easy, on his supposition, to explain the introduction of his mistress here, with no other reference whatever to her in the poem. 114, 27-29 is a reminiscence—in all probability a direct reminiscence of 51, 34. In order to prove this, it will be necessary, in the next pages, to take up certain matters not directly connected with the subject of this paper.

No satisfactory explanation of the third stanza has ever been given. Lachmann's emendation dâ nâch (115, 2) has not been adopted. Wackernagel-Rieger and Wilmanns print the reading of CE dennoch, but the editor last named 'does not understand it,' and approves of Bechstein's idea that a comparative like gerner would be in place. Pfeiffer-Bartsch retain dennoch, and take the meaning to be: 'And in addition I should have to give up, etc.'

tion, rising above the atmosphere that envelops him, discovers clarified figures which create a new vogue. 'His delights were dolphin-like; they showed his back above the element they lived in '(Shakesp., Ant. and Cleop. V 2).

<sup>1</sup> For the meaning, it is immaterial whether the demonstrative  $d\hat{a}$ , as distinct from the temporal  $d\hat{o}$ , refers to  $\hat{e}$  (25) 'formerly,' or to the blooming heath of that former season. In either case, the scene and the occasion are identical.

In either case the interpretation does not satisfy. I prefer to continue the sense through 115, 4, to read (with C) müeze, and to translate: 'But yet,' if it so be that I must' relinquish all the joy I possessed erewhile-God bless you all! And you, wish now that good hap may befall me!' 115, 4, as expressing the resignation with which the poet accepts the fate implied in the condition, is only an unusually bold instance of what Burdach (75) calls Walther's 'Reichtum an Ausrufen, welche die feste Kette der syntactischen Gliederung keck und lebendig zerreissen.' In this case it is not his usual gayety, but deep pathos, which elicits the exclamation. The poet is contemplating an alternative like death, or complete withdrawal from the world; and pronounces a parting benediction on all good folk (34) who have been made fro by his art in past years. The following instances illustrate this meaning of fröide lazen: Parz. 119, 15, suln vogele durch mich freude lan? Hartmann (MF 210, 27), der fröide min den besten teil hat er da hin, und schüefe ich nû der sêle heil, daz wære ein sin (this outweighs Walther 97, 12, and Dietmar, MF 39, 29). Ulrich von Singenberg (Wackernagel-Rieger 246), nû wünschen ime dur sînen werden höveschen sanc, sît dem sîn vröide sî ze wege, daz sin der sueze vater nach genaden phlege. The last passage cited, which exactly reproduces Walther's thought, and which must refer to the lapse of the poet's earthly joys in death, is part of a poem which is in all probability (as I hope to show) an adaptation of Walther 100, 24 f. But aside from this wider question, 101, 21 got gebe iu, frowe, guote naht: ich wil ze herberge varn corresponds with 115, 4 got gesegen iuch alle, and the following

<sup>1</sup>That dennoch occurs in the adversative sense is proved by passages like Parz. 177, 17: der wåren dennoch niht wan driu. Benecke's rendering of Iwein 3762, etc., 'sogar da noch,' 'zu der zeit noch' (Wb. zu Iw. 2 Ausg. 38), seems to be the result of a too sweeping theory, which refuses to every passage the modern meaning 'dennoch.' The mild adversatives 'still,' 'and still,' occupy in English this debatable ground. But dannoch in Iw. 3762 ('nevertheless') is stronger.

<sup>9</sup>In 112, 3 müeste has this meaning ('contingere,' Wb. II <sup>1</sup> 269b, 49) in the corresponding unreal condition. Paul (Gram.<sup>2</sup> §285) gives this as a wish; but this must be an inadvertence, as he places a comma after lesen (112, 4) in his edition of the poems. Cf. J. Knepper, Tempora und Modi bei Walther von der Vogelweide, Lingen, 1889, p. 17. Iwein 6159.

<sup>3</sup> Not only are conditional sentences with no introductory particle in the apodosis common enough (116, 36); the exclamation itself as apodosis is by no means rare. Examples are: Parz. 154, 10; 269, 18: 486, 28; Willehalm, 66, 30 (cf. Herm. Göhl, Modi in den Werken Wolframs, Leipzig, 1889, p. 35); Walther, 74, 6: st mir ieman lieber, maget oder wip, diu helle miteze mir gezemen l

line wünschet noch daz mir ein heil gevalle finds its echo in Ulrich's concluding wish, as cited above. It cannot be objected to this explanation that ein heil, ein mannes heil, etc., usually refers to temporal good fortune. The expression shares in the languor of the poem, and in the euphemism of its close. einem heils wünschen is used in both meanings in Parzival; cf. 224, 7, and 108, 28 mit ritterlichem prise er starp. nû wünscht im heils, der hie ligt. The situation in 115, 4, though perhaps more solemn than that in 66, 31, is illustrated by it: mîn minnesanc der diene in dar, und inwer hulde sî mîn teil. It appears to be a fair inference that 114, 23 f. was written towards the close of Walther's life; and this is supported by the tone of the poem. But whether it is through a winter's sickness, or through a vista of years, or both, the poet's view is fixed in retrospect on the sunny fields of art and spring. There is no force in Wilmanns' idea (386) that the figure in 51, 13, as exhibiting a far greater degree of poetical skill, indicates that 114, 23 was written first. The musing poet of 114, 23 is in no frame of mind to provoke a trial of wit with his younger self, 'weder ir lenger wære'; he simply refers to 51, 13 as a poem already existing.

The consideration just mentioned brings us back to the subject proper of this paper. The fact of Walther's having 'repeated' his own figure has caused much trouble. Wackernagel-Rieger, xxii, declare it most improbable that he should have 'used the same motif twice.' Relying on the sole authority of A, they give 51, 13 to Leutold von Seven, with whose poems it has 'die sprechendste Familienähnlichkeit.' But against all this we have Walther's plain statement: 'It was there I saw ['saw' as poet, in a figure] flowers vying with the clover, which of them were taller. This story' I told my lady.' The reference to 51, 34 is plain.

1 mare 'poetical invention.' In the same manner, the meaning 'news' (56, 15) rises in 56, 23 (the plural form, as in 114, 29), but without detriment to the truth of the mare, to that of 'a poet's praise in song.' On the other hand, 106, 4 gefüeget manec mare, which is translated by Wilmanns (367) 'manches Lob zu Stande gebracht,' seems rather to mean 'brought many a doubtful affair to a happy close.' Cf. Iwein 6584, got der müze vüegen in des morgens bezzer mare danne er getræstet wære ('make a better story come true, than he had been fearing'). This explanation becomes more probable if 106, 6 waz sol diu rede beschænet? can be made to refer back to mære füegen (as euphemistically used), as well as to introduce verse 7. The keenest thrust in this would then be the reference (pointed out by Wilmanns, Leben 109) to occasions like that in 11,36, where Walther sang before Kaiser Otto a mære, as truth, to cover up the Margrave's political chicaneries. In his plea for the poet (AFDA 9, 356), Burdach demands proofs 'dass er mit bewusstsein und aus eigennutz

If the importance attached to this figure of speech by the poet himself had been perceived, the six strophes of the latter song would, in all probability, have remained a unit in the editions, and not have been divided (Lachmann) at 51, 37. Wilmanns' proposed re-arrangement of the strophes (236) does not help matters. The third and fourth stanzas, the only ones given in the Carmina Burana, are the kernel of the poem, and belong together. 52, 1. 2 are a variation of the maxim 'wer Schaden hat darf für Spott nicht sorgen.' The schaden (2) is explained by (4) owê so verlorner stunde (cf. also 53, 7), and there is 'Spott' in the lachen (51, 38). This mocking smile on the part of his lady (rôter munt), which has remained somewhat enigmatical, is now susceptible of explanation. The object of the 'Natureingang' in a spring song is usually to attune the hearers, and notably one fair listener, to the merriment of song and dance: the precursors of longed-for tokens of genade. Most minnesingers can go no further; but we have seen that Walther refined upon the love summons by the invention of a figure of speech which he looks back upon with subdued pleasure, years afterwards. In view of 114, 29 miner frowen seit ich disiu mære, it is evident that in 51, 13 the lady, though not yet specially introduced, is intended by the poet to be listening quietly, as convention demanded, to his impassioned introduction. But she is surprised out of her equanimity by this highest capriole of Walther's fancy (51, 34): wol dir, meie, wie dû scheidest allez ane haz! wie wol

gelogen.' Aside from the question of motive-which appears here for the first time in the argument-Burdach scarcely strengthens his position by ascribing Walther's assurances of the Meissner's good faith to his 'erregbares temperament,' and by the novel idea that 'ruhig erwägende kritik war ihm nicht gegeben.' The historical evidence as to Walther's political leanings in this affair has been collected by Wilmanns. The question here can only be, what does the poet himself say? In the rendering proposed above, 106, 3-8 must at least be held to indicate that the services referred to were of a highsoaring political character: in all probability dangerous and adroit diplomatic attempts. 106, 6 was sol din rede beschanet? flings at his hearers the defiant confession of one of the best natures in an age of violent action and intrigue, when all virtue-and especially all political virtue-has become more than ever militant and comparative: 'forging, through swart arms of offence, the silver seat of innocence.' The man who can afford to make this confession is quite capable of looking after his own reputation; and we learn from Burdach, on the same page, that 'no one at the present time will represent the German Middle Ages as an ideal.'

<sup>1</sup>Cf. Ulrich von Singenberg, WR 253, 10 (imitation of Walther 75, 32 [and of this passage?]): genuoge sprechent 'sing als &, prüef uns die bluomen und den klé!' die wellent niht daz ich verste, waz mir dar an ze herzen gê.

dû die boume kleidest, und die heide baz! diu hût varwe mê.¹ 'du bist kurzer, ich bin langer,' alsô strîtents ûf dem anger, bluomen unde klê. At this she laughs (37) in what the poet takes to be a beauty's petulance, rather than in disdain. The tone then sinks to the level of a lover's expostulation, and concludes in that strain.

I fail to see the force of Burdach's idea (152), that this is a poem 'in the prevailing fashion,' with the occurrences—if not the lady—feigned; or, that at best 'the poet confronts his mistress quite unconcernedly, assuming a tone of lofty admonition towards her.' The prime characteristic of the verses is the unfashionable beauty of the metaphor used; and it is no transient flame, but his unforgotten mistress, who smiles—but smiles aloof—at the seduction of this figure of speech, till then unheard of.'

The place of rural imagery in the poetical economy of Walther's sprüche is in marked contrast to the office of such figures in the song. If the minne-poet 'translates the stubbornness of fortune into so quiet and so sweet a style,' the needy sonneteer at court, 'with wit more ripe,' a makes heath and grove help build his fire and boil his pot (21, 4 f.), or bids them trudge (35, 22). 28, 3 gives his normal thought in the later sprüche: gerne wolde ich, möhte ez sîn, bî eigem fiure erwarmen. zâî wiech danne sunge von den vogellinen, von der heide und von den bluomen, als ich wilent sanc! and (8) sus kume ich spåte und rite fruo: gast, wê dir, wê! sô mac der wirt wol singen von dem grüenen kie. Ulrich von Singenberg's parody (Lachm. 153, WR 211) catches up Walther's point of view, and adapts it to his own easy circumstances: sus rîte ich spate und kume doch hein, mirst niht ze wê: da singe ich von der heide und von dem grüenen klê. Walther stamped the contrast, at least in these sharp outlines, with his own originality. Ulrich's only merit is that he recognized the value of the new mintages, and helped give them currency and conventionality.

Paul (PBB 8, 174-5) assails Burdach's view (118, and PBB 8, 468-9) that 28, 4-7 distinguishes between 'hohe und niedere Minne.' Paul justly maintains that descriptions of nature are not

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Cf. The Marner (MSH 2, 239; imitating Walther): Schouwet, wie die heide lit, die der winter twanc: si hat liechten schin mit den bluomen dur daz gras in ir varwe gesundert, hundert ist ir, niht mê, grüenen klê sach ich úf der heide, da was ich ê.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> The question of the priority of the verses in the Carmina Burana does not affect the conclusion.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Rubin (MSH 3, 31): Walther, dû bist von hinnen, mit dînen wîsen sinnen; du hete ouch herren gunst.

foreign to the court song; and it was shown above that when Walther looked back upon his art as a whole, he selected an image eminently rural. On the other hand, further investigation may be able to show that the tranquil but tender remembrance, in which the coy beauty of 51, 13 is still held in 114, 23, helps to raise this whole group of songs to a higher plane. The niedere Minne of Walther's happiest verses would then be less open to suspicions of stealthy and transient amours (Paul, PBB 8, 174), and part at least of his love-poetry would appeal in a higher degree to modern tastes. But in 28, 1-10 the case is quite different. Walther is here not thinking of high or low love at all, but simply of the contrast between a homeless singer and a comfortable householder; cf. 28, 35, daz ich den sumer luft und in dem winter hitze han.

This is the obverse of the country pictures in Walther's sprüche. But there appears to be a reverse, not unlike that illustrated above in the songs. It seems to me probable that a naïve bucolic tone in one of the earlier sprüche gave rise to a pretty piece of literary 'sparring'. This, with other sharp experiences, the history of which we cannot trace, may have wrought the lasting change in the poet's style, making him more worldly wise, and in one case (28, 7) even cynical.

20, 31 f. has very generally been classed among the earliest sprüche written at Vienna. The style is immature, and the poet

<sup>1</sup> Heinrich von Morungen (MF 139, 19) furnishes additional proof of the scope of the 'hohe Minne.' The poet hears loud voices and sweet song on the heath, and finds his mistress there, dancing and singing; and in this sport he joins her. No mention is made of other dancers on the green, nor of a linden tree; but is not this because the poet wishes to concentrate our interest on his lady in his three rare portraits of her? In the following stanza the scene is changed, von der Hagen (IV 124) thinks to a 'kämmerchen'; and in the final verses she is on the castle battlements, where he, a messenger, finds her. Haupt's explanation, gesamt for gesant (140, 2), seems far-fetched (cf. Gottschau, PBB 7, 336 f., for Heinrich von Morungen's position in life). Burdach (47) conceives Morungen's lady to have been of princely rank, which would only confirm the applicability of love scenes and jollities out-of-doors to the 'hohe Minne.' Why the same writer (52) places the first stanza last, does not appear. The poem, as it stands, gives us a passionate climax, quite in Morungen's style.

<sup>9</sup>13, 19-25 (one of the latest songs) furnishes an example of Walther's fine ethical applications of early metaphors of his own like that in 20, 35 and 21, 5. But Wilmanns' explanation ('between heavenly and temporal joys') is not satisfactory, even with zwein (20) retained. How can the temporal joys be possessed, if the müezegen liute sit down between the two? But if zwein, as 'gegen sinn und vers' (Lachmann), be omitted, fröiden (20) suits the meaning of state fröiden (25), and the now-consistent metaphor may be taken as a

is more modest in his demands than was the case later.' The passage in question is 21, 1-9. Walther's patron, the duke, appears in three characters in six verses. He is a refreshing rain, a heath off which no end (wunder) of flowers may be plucked, and finally, assuming his own character, he is to pluck a 'leaf' off this heath for the poet. Such a piece of work may be compared instructively with 35, 7, which was written during Walther's best years. der Dürnge bluome [Duke Hermann], who schinet dur den snê, is compared with those whose praise gruonet und valwet so der klê. The style in 21, 1 is crude and bungling compared with such perfection. The picture of Leopold submitting to this 'plucking' is not far from the confirmed bad taste of a spring song by Gottfried von Neisen (MSH 1, 47b): diu heide ist worden swanger. Wilmanns (151) has pointed out that in 21, 6 und bræche mir ein blat dar under sîn vil milte rîchiu hant Walther not only destroys his metaphor, but substitutes a figure more appropriate to a tree than to a heath. Instances in this very period are recorded, where a gold (or silver) leaf, plucked from a golden-leaved tree erected at the jousting place, served as the reward of valor in the lists. Is it not natural to suppose that the duke, amused at the figure in which his generosity was invoked, should have answered the poet in terms suited to his appeal? 35, 17 f. makes this highly probable, and seems itself to be Walther's retort to the duke. No spruch has given rise to more discussion than 35, 17, and none has so vexatiously eluded explanation; cf. Uhland, V 61; Lachmann, 162; Rieger, 28; Menzel, 274; Wilmanns, Leben, 58; Paul, 9. It is with the utmost deference to these names that I offer the following contribution to the discussion.

35, 18, at least, is plain. The duke has wished the poet off 'to the woods'; but it is not at all evident that he put the meaning into the wish which Walther chooses to find in it. 35, 20, dû wünschest underwîlent biderbem man dun weist joch wie refers either to the sinister meaning of ze walde wünschen ('to wood and waste,' 'to —'), or to some other disagreeable implication, which the duke did not stop to consider. The joke, if there was a joke (Rieger, 28; Paul, 9), can have been only on the side of the duke. Walther is so beside himself, that in his attempt to

reminiscence of the situation and figure of speech in 20, 35. blat (13, 23) becomes an eloquent commentary on the same word in 21, 6, and on princes' favors as among the fleeting things.

<sup>1</sup> Wilmanns, Leben 54. 57. 284. 303. According to Paul (Gedichte Walthers, 9), the verses were written during a later visit at Vienna. Burdach (AfdA 9, 346) thinks they may not be older than 25, 26.

turn the tables on his patron he lacks his usual mastery, and betrays deep chagrin. The climax is reached in 35, 22, vil sælic sî der walt, dar zuo diu heide! ('the forest can stay forest, for all me, and the heath to boot!'). This explosion, the violence of which Leopold may never have forgiven (Lachmann), points to something harder for the poet to bear than a temporary rebuff. Leopold, though a patron of singers (liberalis et gloriosus), had a practical mind (Wilmanns, Leb. 54). This something which roused the poet appears to have been a slighting reference on the duke's part to the fantastic unrealities of the minnesinger style and vocabulary. Such ridicule was common, and instances of it will be produced below. In the case of 20, 31 f. matters are still worse; for those mummers of song are here masquerading in the spruch, out of character. They beg for very substantial alms; and the affected daintiness they introduce into this serious business is not only incongruous, it is most inartistic.1 I have accordingly ventured to connect 20, 31 f. with 35, 17, and to assume that Leopold (vir facundissimus et litteratus; cf. Menzel, 117), marking in the former piece the poet's extravagant style-paired with the ridiculous, mock-modest request (21, 6) - answered in this fashion: "you ask for a 'leaf'; may you pluck your fill of them 'in the woods,' and on your fine heath!"

Whatever degree of probability may be claimed for this supposition,<sup>2</sup> the question whether 35, 17 was the rejoinder to a similar wish on the part of Leopold, still remains. It was seen above that Walther attaches great importance to the poetical use of heath and wood in his songs. But the 'Gegensang' heaps ridicule upon the extravagant and sentimental use of similar motifs by later minnesingers. Did this 'Gegensang,' as a form of art, already exist, and did it find a patron in the duke? Neidhart reached Austria much later, and his first (and only?) connection with Leopold must have been his participation in the crusade which the latter organized in 1217 (Keinz, Lieder Neidharts, 1889, p. 5). Whoever the gebûren (65,31), unhöveschen (32, 2) and hovebellen

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Cf. Spervogel, MF 23, 13. A very appropriate and consistent figure of speech.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Is the metrical form of 35, 17 a valid objection? The excellent remarks of Paul (PBB 8, 161-170) do not indicate, as yet, what he considers the natural limits to this freer tendency of criticism. Cf. also, Burdach, AFDA 9, 343. Zarncke (PBB 7, 597 f.) fixed the date 1201 for 21, 25, which is in the same 'tone' as 20, 31. It is not known when Walther began writing in the tone of 35, 17. 31, 33, which was formerly styled the 'Weihestrophe,' will be considered in another paper.

(32, 27) may have been,' among them were sharp critics of Walther's style, and possibly writers of satires like those shortly afterwards in vogue. Among these last, the 'Welt und Sitten Spiegel' (v. d. Hagen's Germania, 8) sinks to the level of the following: swenne er då ze tische sæzze vnt gern trunch vnt æzze, sô wære daz vil gefüge, daz man für in trüge edel bluomen, loup vnt gras, daz ie der hofschære vroude was (p. 299). man sol den hofschær finden bi dem walde vnt bi der linden, då solt ein hofschær stæt sîn (p. 300). er solt niht neisen rîten in islîchen chue stal. ein sov vnt ein nahtegal die singent vngelîchen sanc. ein hofschær ist gar ze chranc, der sîn selbes sô vergizzet, daz einen rinderînen braten izzet (p. 301).

Wolfram von Eschenbach represents another sphere of life and thought, and is, besides, Walther's contemporary. His waggish description of the fate of Tesereiz der minne kranz (Willehalm, 87, 30) is exactly in the good-humored, bantering tone which I assume Duke Leopold to have used towards Walther: geêret si velt unde gras aldå der minnær lac erslagen. daz velt solde zuker tragen al umb ein tagereise. der clåre kurteise möht al den bien geben ir nar: sit si der süeze nement war, si möhten, wærns iht wise, in dem lufte nemen ir spise, der von dem lande kumt geflogen, då Tesereiz für unbetrogen sin riterliches ende nam. er was der minne ein blüender stam.

Lachmann's explanation of 17, 25 f. furnishes a strict parallel, not only to the interpretation of 35, 17 attempted above, but also to the theory of a connection between 35, 17 and 20, 31. 'Ich glaube, ein tadler, vielleicht der dichter den das nächst folgende gesetz derb absertigt, hatte Walthers lied vom halmmessen (65. 66) verhöhnt; etwa in dem sinne, herrn Walthers halm sei keiner bohne werth, die man dagegen schon eher besingen könnte' (141). The poet's rejoinder in dispraise of fro Bône is not inconsistent with 35, 17. In the latter case his existence was at stake; in the former, he had to do with a nameless critic before whom there was no need of forswearing his ideals, or even of losing his temper. But it is noticeable that the criticism suddenly develops in Walther great dexterity in poetical tillage; his Arcadian halm of 65, 33 is made to bring forth a hundredfold of nourishing corn, and a good straw pallet, in 17, 25.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Cf. Uhland III 385. 459-460; Wilmanns, Leben 47.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Kant (der Humor in den Werken Wolframs) does not notice this passage.

# NOTES.

θήρ, Latin fera, and the Greek and Latin Representatives of Indo-Eur. Initial Palatals + u.

In all the more recent works treating of Greek and Latin philology we find  $\theta \hat{\eta} \rho$ , Latin fera, derived from an Indo-Eur. form with initial guttural, \*ghēr-. So, for example, Brugmann, Grundriss I, pgs. 320, 325; Gustav Meyer, Gr. Gram.2, pg. 204; Stolz, Lat. Gram.2, §53. This view seems to owe its origin to the following words of J. Schmidt (K. Z. XXV, pg. 172): "θήρ und ferus, fera sind schon von Dobrowsky inst. p. 138 mit abulg. zvěrí fera zusammengestellt; sie von einer grundform dhvar herzuleiten, wie Curtius no. 314 will, verbieten die slawischen lautgesetze. Ebensowenig ist es gestattet mit Fick II<sup>8</sup> 167 aus aol. φήρ und lat. ferus ein graecoitalisches φερο- wild zu construiren. Lit. zveris, preuss. swirins acc. plur. haben als slawische lehnworte aus der discussion zu bleiben, denn das z des abulg. zvěrí ist aus dz, der media zu c entstanden, wie nbulg. dzvere Miladin. bulg. nar pêsni No. 15 und die schreiburgen der alten handschriften beweisen (zahlreiche belege in der werthvollen Abhandlung von Miklosich über die Schriftzeichen für z im IX bande des Rad jugosl. akad. und jetzt altslov. lautl. 252 f.) Ebenso ist das θ von θήρ durch das folgende gemeingriechische n aus ursprunglichem guttural umgewandelt."

Of course the forms set up by Curtius and Fick are no longer even to be thought of. The only question is whether the initial was a guttural or palatal. The Lithuanian and Prussian forms, if not borrowed, would point conclusively to an initial palatal, and there is always a certain prejudice in favor of the genuineness of a word which occurs both in Prussian and in the earliest Lithuanian. Moreover, the Balto-Slavic family does not belong to the "labializing" group, and the presence of the v in zveris, etc., seems unaccountable on the basis of an Indo-Eur. form ghēr-. The alleged parallels given by J. Schmidt, l. c. pg. 178, rest on too uncertain etymologies.

Now as to the main point. Do the forms of the Slavic branch

prove, as J. Schmidt maintains, that the initial was a guttural and consequently that the Baltic forms are borrowed? Not only does Slavic fail to prove this, but it actually proves the opposite.<sup>1</sup>

I. The Bulgarian forms upon which J. Schmidt relies prove nothing. The modern Bulgarian dzvere is of no account, since the prefixing of a d sound in the pronunciation is a frequent dialectic occurrence before both z and ž. "Das z in einigen wörtern wird in manchem gegenden wie das poln. dz ausgesprochen, z. B zvêzda (dzvêzda), zêmù mi sù (dzêmù mì sù), zadnicù (dzadnicù)" (Cankof, Gram. d. Bulg. Sprache, pg. 7; cf. also Miklosich, Vergleich. Gram. d. Slav. Sprachen, I³, pg. 254). Only the first of these examples is a word with original guttural initial, the other two had palatal initials. Besides these cf. mod. Bulg. dzvekna, 'noise,' for zvekna, cited by Miklosich, Etymol. Wörterbuch der Slav. Sprachen, s. v. zven-.

Furthermore, the writing of the old MSS proves nothing in this case. It is true that both the Cyrillic and Glogolitic alphabets had different characters for dz and z, but even in the oldest documents they are occasionally confused, and the later the MS the more frequent are such mistakes. In the passage of Miklosich referred to by J. Schmidt (= Vergleich. Gram. I<sup>2</sup>, pg. 252) we find dzvěrí cited from several Cyrillic MSS, the earliest being of the twelfth or thirteenth century. But on the previous page we note that the personal pronoun ază occurs in one of the old Glogolitic MSS in the form adzu. In face of the Avestan form azem, J. Schmidt would scarcely consider this spelling sufficient to prove that the original form had a guttural, not palatal, and that Lithuanian asz, Lettic es, Prussian as are borrowed from the Slavic. Instances like adzu are not rare (cf. Leskien, Handbuch d. altbulg. Sprache<sup>2</sup>, §31, 3, at end), so that one cannot be too guarded in drawing conclusions from the writing of the MSS.

II. The Westslavic forms of the word directly prove that the initial was palatal, not guttural, that it is incorrect to derive zvěrí from \*guěrí. Brugmann (Grundriss, I, pg. 342) refers to zvěrí as a parallel case to Old Bulgarian cvisti, 'to blossom,' which is derived from \*kuīstī. But the change of k to c does not occur in the Westslavic group (cf. Chechish kvisti, Old Polish kwiść, etc.), and that the corresponding change g-dz is likewise unknown to the Westslavic languages may be seen from Chechish hvězda,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>I am obliged to Prof. Leskien for assistance and confirmation in the judgment of the Slavic forms.

NOTES. 213

Polish gwiazda, Low Sorbian gvjezda, etc. = Old Bulgarian (d)zvězda, 'star' (cf. Leskien, Handbuch, §29, 4).

But the Westslavic cognates of zvěrí show a sibilant, not a guttural (cf. Chechish zvěř, Polish źwierz, Low Sorbian zvjeře), and thus exclude the possibility of deriving the word from \*guerĭ, Indo-Eur. \*ghuēr-. The Indo-Eur. form must have been \*ĝhuēr-, and the Baltic forms are restored to their rights.

It is evident now that we must either give up the comparison Old Bulgarian zvěrí = Gr. θήρ, Lat. fera, or explain the latter forms on a new basis. Let us first consider the Greek form. Can the be derived from Indo-Eur. ghuer? Unfortunately the material for determining what the Greek representatives of Indo-Eur. palatals + u are is very small. For gu- and ghu there are no examples, for ku only one or possibly two certain ones, innos = Skt. áçva-s, mart-=Skt. -çvant in ça-çvant- from sa-çvant (cf. Brugmann, Grundriss, I, pg. 148, Griech. Gram., pg. 32, where, moreover, Doric πâμα is derived from a form \*kuā-men and Πανόχια from \*kuano-). On these forms is based the law stated by Brugmann (Grundriss, pg. 292): "Aus ku entstand ππ, das im anlaut zu m vereinfacht wurde." I would rather set up the following rule, based on the treatment of ku = Indo-Eur. guttural: ku becomes ππ, initial π before o-vowels, liquids and nasal, both vocalic and consonantal, but TT, initial T before e- and i-vowels.

I hold that ku and ku fell together in prehistoric Greek, as far as the quality of the resulting sound is concerned. They differed only in quantity, ku as two full sounds giving a double consonant, while ky, in which the u was only a slight after-tone, produced a single consonant; cf. τλιπον from \*e-liku-o-m and εππος from \*ekuo-s (Brugmann, Grundriss, I, pg. 315). Owing to the simplification of two initial consonants, the representatives of initial ku and ku would become absolutely identical. As regards the treatment of gutturals before e- and i-vowels, I hold strongly to Brugmann's treatment of this phenomenon as against that of J. Schmidt. While the latter maintains that the Greek dentalization is identical with the Aryan palatization of gutturals, both having their beginnings in Indo-Eur., Brugmann holds that the two processes have no historical connection, that the dentals are due to a special Greek treatment of the gutturals, and, moreover, of those gutturals which originally had the u after-sound. That r arose from ku, not from k, he justly concludes from the fact that the dental occurs only in such classes of words for which

other forms in the labializing languages prove the former existence of  $k^{\mu}$ , e. g.  $\tau \acute{e}o$  beside  $\pi \acute{o} - \theta \acute{e}v$ ,  $\tau \acute{e}s = Lat$ . quis, and that the dentalization does not occur in words for which other forms show the representative of simple k (not  $k^{\mu}$ ), as  $\kappa \acute{e}\lambda \eta s = Lat$ . celer (cf.

Grundriss, I, pg. 316).1

Now, just as  $k^{\mu}$  becomes  $\tau$  before e- and i-vowels, so may  $k^{\mu}$  have become  $\tau\tau$ , initial  $\tau$ , under the same circumstances. This hypothesis can neither be proved nor disproved by actual examples. The only certain cases of  $k^{\mu}_{\mu}$ - $\pi\pi$ , initial  $\pi$ , are before o-vowels or vowel nasals,  $i\pi\pi_0$ -s from \*ekuo-s and  $\pi\mu$ -from \*kunt-. To be sure, the etymology Gr.  $\pi\phi\pi$ ides = Skt. parçu (used in plural, meaning 'ribs'), has been proposed by Bechtel (Gött. Nachr. 1888, pg. 401) and supported by Johannson (Literaturblatt für germ. und rom. Phil., 1889, pg. 366), who sets up an Indo-Eur. form \*prkuī, but, even according to the law as usually stated, we should expect  $\pi\pi$ , not  $\pi$ , so that the comparison is too uncertain to disturb us.

Once granted the correctness of the preceding hypothesis in regard to the treatment of  $\hat{k}u$  and the rest is easy. Just as  $g^{\mu}$  becomes  $\beta$  before o-vowels, etc., and  $\delta$  before e- and i-vowels, so would  $\hat{g}u$  become  $\beta\beta$ , initial  $\beta$ , and  $\delta\delta$ , initial  $\delta$ , respectively, under the same conditions. And as  $kh^{\mu}$  (Indo-Eur. gh) becomes  $\phi$  before o-vowels, etc., but  $\theta$  before e- and i-vowels, so would  $\hat{k}hu$  (Indo-Eur.  $\hat{g}hu$ ) become  $\phi\phi$ , initial  $\phi$ , and  $\theta\theta$ , initial  $\theta$ , respectively, and we have the explanation of  $\theta\eta\rho$ . As Indo-Eur. gheros (Skt. háras), through the stage of prehistoric Gr.  $kh^{\mu}eros$ , becomes  $\theta\epsilon\rho os$ , so would Indo-Eur.  $\hat{g}hu\bar{e}r$ , through the stage  $khu\bar{e}r$ , become  $\theta\eta\rho$ .

Our next task is to explain Latin ferus, fera, on the basis of an Indo-Eur. \*ghuēr-. Italic ku (= Indo-Eur. q) and ku, both initial and in the interior of a word, are alike represented in Latin by qu-, irrespective of the quality of the following vowel; cf. quo-(Indo-Eur. \*qo-) and equus (Indo-Eur. \*ekuo-s). It is held, however, that in the Italic period they were still distinct, because in Umbrian we find ekvine, a locative of an adj. = Lat. equinus (Iguvinian Tables, II A. l. 13), while forms like pumpe = Lat. quomque show that Indo-Eur. q was labialized as in Greek (cf.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Our argument is in no way affected by the setting up of these non-labialized gutturals as an independent Indo-Eur. series, cf. Osthoff, M. U. V, pg. 63, note; Bezzenberger in his Beiträge XVI, pg. 234 ff. For that the new series may in some cases be represented by dentals in Greek, as Bezzenberger claims, is not satisfactorily proved.

NOTES. 215

Brugmann, Grundriss, I, pg. 322). This conclusion is, however, uncertain owing to the possibility, which Brugmann l. c. has not omitted to note, that ekvine may be borrowed from the Latin, as kvestur, to which Bücheler (Umbrica, pg. 127) compares it, must necessarily be. Still the question whether ku and ku had already in the Italic period become identical or not does not affect our argument either way; for fera, I believe, does not occur in any of the dialects, and we may restrict ourselves to Latin.

Like  $k^{\mu}$  and  $k_{\mu}$ , so may  $g^{\mu}$  and  $\hat{g}_{\mu}$  have become identical in Latin, and, furthermore,  $\chi^{\mu}$  (Indo-Eur. gh) and  $\chi^{\mu}$  (Indo-Eur. gh;  $\chi$ , adopted from Brugmann's Grundriss, is intended merely to denote the fact that the Indo-Eur. sonant aspirates had become surd spirants in the Italic period), just as Indo-Eur. \*ghormo-(Skt. gharmá-s) through the stage of \* $\chi^{\mu}$ ormo-s, gives Latin formus, so would Indo-Eur. \* $\hat{g}$ h $\mu$ er-, through \* $\chi^{\mu}$ er-, give Latin

fer-a, fer-us.

A certain degree of support would be given to this hypothesis that Indo-Eur. ghu becomes f in Latin, if we could show that Indo-Eur. gh before vowel u becomes f in Latin, and this, I think, can at least be made probable. A change of gh to f beside that of gh-h, was formerly held for quite a number of words, but most of these have been put aside as borrowed from the Sabine dialect, where f is the regular representative of gh.

Only fundo remains a stumbling-block. No one ventures to consider such a common word as of Sabine origin, and the comparison with  $\chi \epsilon_{\infty}$ , Gothic giutan, Anglo-Saxon geotan (English gut), Skt.  $\sqrt{hu}$ , 'to pour' (a libation), Avestan zao-prā, 'libation,'

is too striking to be given up without a struggle.

Osthoff, to be sure, denies the correctness of the etymology (M. U. IV, pg. 99: "Indemich . . . verwantschaft des lat. fundere mit griech,  $\chi \acute{e}\omega$ , got. giutan leugne, entgehe ich einerseits der lästigen zumuthung, lat. lautwandel von gh in f neben demjenigen in h anzuerkennen"), but Brugmann (Grundriss, I, pg. 294, note) retains it while acknowledging the difficulty of explaining it. Under the supposition that gh before u becomes f, the difficulty is removed. As another example of this change may be cited fulvus, which Schrader (Sprachvergleichung und Urgeschichte', pg. 168) considers to be of the same origin as helvu-s, which = O. H. G. gelo. A. S. geolo (English yellow), Skt. hári-s, 'bright yellow,' Avestan zairi-š, 'golden,' Lith. žélti, 'to grow green,' Old Bulg. zelenů, 'green.'

Helvu-s is from \* $\chi$ el-vo-s, Indo-Eur. \* $\hat{g}$ hel-, fulvu-s from \* $\chi$ ul-vo-s, Italic \* $\chi$ ol-vo-s, Indo-Eur. \* $\hat{g}$ hl-. The fact that fulvu-s and helvu-s are not identical in meaning in Latin is no argument against their formal relationship. "Gerade zur bezeichnung der dem bewusstsein erst allmählich aufgehenden farbenunterschiede sind der sprache lautdifferenzierungen sehr willkommen" (J. Schmidt, Vokalismus, pg. 353; the examples given to illustrate this are unfortunate, but the general truth of the statement is not to be doubted). The form folus (known only through Festus) = holus, Gr.  $\chi\lambda\delta\eta$ , Lith. žolé, 'herbs,' 'vegetables,' may possibly owe its f to the analogy of fulvus, but it is scarcely likely that there existed any consciousness of the connection between the two words, and so it is better, with Brugmann, Osthoff, and others, to regard folus as a Sabine word which had crept into Festus.

Let us now see if there are any facts on the negative side at variance with our law. Are there any cases in which  $\hat{g}h$  before u does not become f. Under the instances of Lat. h for Indo-Eur.  $\hat{g}h$  given by Brugmann (Grundriss, pg. 294) we find humu-s, but here the u is not Indo-Eur., nor even Italic, but arose in Latin by Svarabhakti, like the e in Avestan zemō (monosyllabic, as is shown by the metre) gen. sing. = Indo-Eur.  $\hat{g}hm$ -os (cf. Bartholomae, Arische Forschungen, II, pgs. 55, 56; Daniellson in Pauli's Altital. Studien, III, pg. 143). The u of Oskan hu[n]truis proves nothing, for in the Oskan alphabet u represents both  $\hat{u}$  and  $\hat{o}$ , and Umbrian hondra shows us that the u of hu[n]truis is for o.

It will be objected that though the u of fundo is Indo-Eur., the u of fulvu-s is not even Italic, but special Latin like the u of humus, and yet I have credited it with the power to change  $\chi$  to f. True, but we can suppose that ol became ul at a period preceding that in which the Svarabhakti u in humu-s came into existence. That Italic ol = Indo-Eur.  $\frac{1}{2}$  became ul in the very earliest period of Latin, fong before the general weakening of o to u, is shown by the fact that forms with o are never found (cf. Brugmann, Grundriss, pg. 238). To this very period then, after the change of -ol--ul-, but before the appearance of the Svarabhakti u in humus, belongs the action of our law— $\chi$  (Indo-Eur.  $\hat{g}h$ ) becomes f before u, otherwise h. Combining this with the results of our consideration of fera, we may state as a more general law—Indo-Eur.  $\hat{g}h$ , Italic  $\hat{\chi}$ , becomes f in early Latin when followed by u either vowel or consonant (u or u).

CARL D. BUCK.

# REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTICES.

Das Praesens der indogermanischen Grundsprache, von Otto Hoffmann, Göttingen, 1889. 145 pp.

This monograph proposes to give a "general, comprehensive, and easily understood treatment of the forms of the Present-system in the I. E. languages, and to deduce from these the original type of the parent speech, hoping thereby to 'orient' beginners as well as specialists in the present condition of comparative grammar, and its most important results for the separate languages." This aim is commendable, for there is a lack of easily understood manuals for beginners, and the Present-system offers a very satisfactory section of grammar for introductory treatment. It may be admitted at the outset that the author's style of presentation justifies his effort after easy comprehensibility. We fear, however, that in his attempt to reach the very different groups of beginners and special philologists he has succeeded in reaching neither adequately. It was to reach the former, we presume, that Hoffmann omits all mention of his authorities, and passes over contrary opinion without a word; in setting up brand-new explanations of very unimportant points, on the other hand, he is certainly not consulting the needs of beginners. This ipse dixit manner does add to the comprehensibility of his treatment, but the professed scholar prefers to employ his own discrimination somewhat in deciding between the various opinions that offer.

The volume before us does present a very useful and well arranged body of material to the student. After defining the present-system and differentiating thematic and non-thematic inflection, the former is taken up in detail in the following classes:

I. a. Strong root + unaccented thematic vowel,

β. Weak root + accented thematic vowel.

II. a. Strong root + jot + unaccented thematic vowel.

β. Weak root + jot + accented thematic vowel.

III. Weak root + inchoative suffix skh (sic).

IV. a. Strong root with infixed nasal + unaccented thematic vowel.

β. Weak root with infixed nasal + accented thematic vowel.

Paradigms of each of these classes are given for the leading members of the I. E. language family, and the original paradigms then reconstructed as far as possible. Notes follow each paradigm, explaining the variations shown by single languages from the common type. This section is concluded with tables of the reconstructed I. E. roots of the thematic class.

On p. 63 the non-thematic classes are taken up with the following subdivisions: I. The Root-Class. II. The Reduplicating Class. III. The Nasal Classes—which all alike insert the syllable  $n\ell$  for strong forms, and n for weak, and are thus tabulated:

III. a. Weak root + accented  $n\ell$ ;  $\beta$ . Weak root + accented  $n\ell$  + a;  $\gamma$ . Weak root + accented  $n\ell$  + u. The two last classes really form dissyllabic roots according to the Hoffmann-Fick theory, though our author nowhere speaks of them by that name.

The reconstructed paradigms seem to me very well done, barring such points as I. E. 3d sing, mid. \*bherei\* to be commented on, and young students can get valuable practice in reconstructing original I. E. forms. When Brugmann's volume on inflections appears the value of the book before us will be increased, for the student can then exercise an easier closet-criticism.

Two rather important points are raised by our author, as we suppose, for the first time. The first of these is a new explanation for  $\phi \xi \rho \epsilon \iota \epsilon$ , p. 6; the second, a theory that thematic conjugation is older than non-thematic, that non-thematic conjugation is a secondary development from (root) aorists, i. e. that all  $\omega$ -conjugation is original and primary, all  $\mu$ -conjugation derived and secondary, p. 131.

The new explanation starts with the 3d sing. φέρει equated with Aryan \*bhare, a form constructed from Vedic jose, toce, mahe, çdye, seve, stave, beside stavate, etc., and Zend igê (sic) beside igaitê. Hoffmann is very unfortunate in his choice of examples; of the six Vedic examples given, joge, toce and seve are not found in either Rig- or Atharva-Vedas. The only example Whitney cites in his Grammar for the bhū-class is gobhe, not given by Hoffmann, but stave is cited in the Verb-Roots. Caye belongs without doubt to the ad-class. Mahe, stave, and cobhe, each of which occurs but once in R. V., are then the only unequivocal examples for the bhū-class. Zend isē is non-thematic (Bartholomae's Handbuch, §297). This is surely weak ground for setting up an I. E. \*bherei as 3d sing. mid. of thematic inflection, which in Greek became 3d sing. act., to say nothing of the strange change of voice. This point Hoffmann guards, to be sure, by equating the Lat. perf. dedi with Sk. dadê, but his position is inherently too weak for his guard to reinforce. The parallelism of the 1st and 3d sing. perf. mid. is adduced, but it weakens instead of reinforcing the position. It is merely analogy with the perf. that has affected the pres. system. The true home of this 3d sing, mid, ending e in Sk, is in the root-class and the infix-nasal class. Whitney's language is that these forms are "not rare" in the root-class, and "ordinary" in the infix-nasal class, and he cites for the root-class ice, duhé, vidé, and cdye as most frequent, cité, bruve, huvé as more sporadic. ige, Zend ise, is, as far as I know, the only example quotable that is common to both languages. Points cannot be made on the quantity of i- and u-vowels in Zend (Barth. Handb. §19), but to looks for all the world like a true perf. with anomalous accent, cf. Wh. 801e; and it is from this source the perf. may have exerted its analogical influence. Forms like vidre, arhire (Wh. 613) show that the perf. had a corresponding effect on 3d plur. presents.

However this may be, Hoffmann is inconsistent with himself in claiming the original character of this termination and the secondary nature of non-thematic inflection where alone it makes any show whatever, save the sporadic instances noted above in the bhū-class.

Further, the relation of si:ti in the act. seems pretty well established for the second and third persons of the parent speech, and this supplies a strong inference for the original character of sai:tai in the mid.

So much for the a priori objections to this new theory, but we must further see why Hoffmann refuses the orthodox explanation of \*φερεσι > φερεϊ > φέρει which, by taking up from έφερες a new ς, became φέρεις. 3d sing. φέρει was derived from such an analogy as έφερες : φέρεις = έφερε : φέρει, while by Hoffmann's theory this proportion must be just inverted. The claim is made that Homer never contracts vowels brought into hiatus by the loss of σ-always κράτει, μενεί, never κράτει, μένει, etc. This point was raised by Dr. Herbert Weir Smyth, in his dissertation on Der Diphthong EI im Griechischen, Gottingen, 1884, and has obtained a wide and responsible following. Before discussing the point we must eliminate all equivocal cases. Much the largest group of these is offered by words of trochaic metrical value like εγχος, etc., which make έγχει, etc., in the oblique cases. Now it is a purely subjective theory of the rhythm of Homeric hexameters to pronounce that these must be dactyls rather than spondees. Words of this type further occur before vowels where this conjunction of two vowels makes but one short syllable in the scansion. Menrad, de Contractionis et Synizeseos Usu Homerico, gives fifty-three such examples. It is well known that true diphthongs like µoì make a short quantity in Homeric verse under these circumstances, and this is explained as the consonantizing of i to j; Hoffmann, then, must explain such a treatment of µένει, etc., in the same way, e. g. in Z 127. But here is a genuine difficulty for him to meet. Homer is averse to elision of 1; except in such true diphthongs as I have mentioned there is elision of a in Homer only nineteen times, barring of course the cases under discussion. In Sk. sandhi, i is as freely consonantized after consonants before vowels as (the diphthong) e is resolved into ay in interior euphony, or into a(y) in exterior: as well aty abharam as çay-e or patata(y) iyam, but with Homer's aversion for êtj, ôtj, etc., we must think that μένει, and not μένει, is to be made of such verse-endings as μένει άντιδωσιν, Z 127. The only unequivocal cases for μένεϊ, κράτεϊ, etc., will be furnished by pyrrhic stems, or stems ending in pyrrhics when the resulting tribrachs of the oblique cases are converted into anapaests before words beginning with a pair of consonants. Until a collection is made with this object, the verdict of not proven holds against Hoffmann's position. Menrad, p. 72, furnishes eleven unequivocal examples for -ει, not -εῖ, in the dat. of εσ-stems; p. 28 has seven unequivocal examples of -εα < -εσα making one long syllable (cf. further Cauer's Odyssey XXIII) Z 126; \$719, 515; P 647; χ 460; γ 91; X 299; Ε734; θ 385; T 92; Ω 527; H 207; X 322; ω 534; Ω 7; λ 1838; Λ 2828. For further examples of such contraction may be cited θάρσευς, P 573, θέρευς, η 118, θάμβευς, ω 394, etc. άληθείη < άληθεσμα and έμεῖο < έμεσμο demand fresh explanation on this theory. I very much doubt if as many unequivocal examples of non-contracted forms can be produced by Hoffmann, under the conditions I have laid down. Is he quite ingenuous then in making such an absolute statement as the following: Griech φέρεις kann nicht aus φέρει = φέρεσι plus der sekundären endung -ç entstanden sein, da Homer zwei vokale, die ursprünglich durch sigma getrennt waren, nicht contrahierte (vergl. κράτεϊ μένεϊ)?

If indeed it should be proved that  $\phi \ell \rho e \iota$  cannot proceed from  $\phi \ell \rho e \bar{\iota} < \phi \ell \rho e \sigma \iota$ , I think I can show that it may proceed from  $\phi \epsilon \rho e \bar{\iota} < \phi \epsilon \rho e \sigma \iota$ , for the explanation is an accentual one. Wackernagel's famous application of the thoroughgoing

enclisis of independent verbs in Sk. to the recessive accentuation of Gk. verbs will avail us here. The conditions of enclisis that grew up in Gk. absolved two syllables and three morae at the inflective end of the verb from accent. only and elul fall entirely within this limit for the pres. indic., and preserve their enclitic character. In the earliest Greek stage we may assume an enclitic open, open, open, etc., but the upgrowth of this principle of enclisis gave us open : open. With open we have a struggle between giving up complete enclisis or admitting a very simple contraction, the result was, I assume, open; at a still later stage we may conceive a paradigm open, open, open, but open, open, open, but open, open, open, etc.

On p. 10 the author puts forth a new explanation of the Lat. subj. pres. feram, feras, etc., which he explains as I. E. a-aorists. Why does not the injunctive imperfect \*bheram, \*bheras, Sk. bharam, bharas offer a better term of comparison? It seems pure wantonness to compare vadhis, etc., with feras, equating Sk. i = Lat. d, I. E. d, for both the color and the quantity of the vowels are repugnant to such an equation. This point is again brought forward on p. 131, where we reach the second of Hoffmann's larger vagaries from orthodoxy: Die meisten der mi-praesentia sind vom Aoriste, nur es gleich prägnanter auszudrücken, von verschiedenen aoriststämmen aus gebildet. The 'evidently composite' character of the reduplicating and nasal classes is cited in general terms as the ground for this conclusion, and now an explanation is offered for the equivalence of feras: vadhis in point of termination. 'For the proethnic speech only 2d and 3d sing. act. are extant, asis = lag = eras, asit = erat. Of these forms 47 2d and 60 3d persons are to be found in R. V. from 30 roots. A first sing, in im has three occurrences from two roots. In the plural R. V. offers only two additional examples with i. In Homer εγήρα,  $\dot{a}\pi\eta\dot{v}\rho\ddot{a}$  and  $ob\tau a$  remain, there are scattering dialect forms, and  $\dot{\epsilon}\tau\lambda\ddot{a}$  and  $\dot{\epsilon}\tau\lambda\eta$ belong to the common dialect. The second person is, however, living, εἶπας, έχεΓας, ήνεικας, έκηΓας. είπα and είπε do not belong to this type; είπα and έχεFa come from \*FέFεπm, \*έχεFm, while είπε is from a thematic είπου. The final vowel seems to have been long, Sk. i, ἀπεύρā, δ 646, and κατεγήρā, ε 510 in Homer; οὐτά is an exception.'

On this slender basis the author would reconstruct for I. E. a new acrist system differing from the a-acrist as described by Wh. 846 fg. An examination of the Homeric forms will show how slight is the help the Greek affords. ἀπηύρα δ 646 is certainly a contracted impf. to correspond with 1st pers. ἀπηύρων. If Hom. did not always use γηράσκω, not γηράω, κατεγήρα ι 510 would have the same explanation: καταγηράω does appear as early as the Ionic of Herodotus. οὐτα is certainly a better testimony to ἄ than κατεγήρα to ā. The evidence is altogether insufficient for setting up a 3d sing. acr. ending \*-āτ = Sk. it.

It is scarcely necessary to point to  $\ell\beta a$ ,  $\ell\beta n$  to explain  $\ell\tau\lambda a$ ,  $\ell\tau\lambda n$ . \* $\ell\tau$ 

'The reduplicating and root classes are derived from root agrists gone over into u-inflection. Beside dadāti is dāti (5 times in R. V.) from the agr. adāt;

eti is associated with thematic ayate, and there is a bharte to bharate, the thematic types being the older.'

The position that reduplicating and nasal class verbs are of secondary origin seems logical enough on a priori grounds, but it is hard to see how the acrists would help themselves to nasal and reduplicating affixes in passing over to a present system. Reduplicated acrists exist, to be sure, but in Sk. the method of reduplication is very unlike that of present stems.

Many difficulties lie in the way of this view for the root class. In all members of the I. E. family the trend is away from non-thematic to thematic inflection. In Sk. pibati, tisthati, jighrati, and sidati, dadati and dadhati are all transfers from the reduplicating to the thematic class.

If we compare the lists in Whitney's Verb-Roots we see how poor a basis is afforded for Hoffmann's view. The root ky for the earlier language makes the very best showing that can be found for his theory. This root has developed only three forms of root-present in R. V., kṛthás, kṛtha, kṛsé. In A. V. the only occurrence is kdrsi; Ngam has only gathd in R. V.; in Rig- and Atharva-Vedas I vei forms ceti; vjan gives janisva (?); vji gives jeși and jitam; Njuş gives jóşi; Vdā gives dati and datu; Vdhā gives dhāti (3); I N pā gives pānti (1), pāthds (1); Nbhr gives bharti (2); Nyam gives ydmsi; Nyuj gives yujé, yujmahe, yujata, yuksvá; /yudh gives yótsi; /vah gives a large complement of forms, but its root aor. is as late as Sutra and of an altogether different stem formation; vort gives vartti (1); voru gives ordsi; vsah gives saksi, saksva, saksva; whū gives hóma, hūmdhe; and whr. gives harme (1), though its aor. is as late as Brāhmaṇa, as is the case with aor. of ybhr. These are the only examples of root-presents in the early language where one can see any trace of aor. influence. Of the root-presents that prevail throughout the language Vad and Vi give the most support to Hoffmann's theory, and root-aorists to these bases appear late, to vad in Br., to vi as late as Epic. The truth is that there is no intrinsic difference between the impfs. to rootpresents, and root-aorists. abhedam (R.-A.); advesam (R. I.), abhet: advet, amok: adhok, arudhma: dduhma, agvitan: dlihan are perfect parallels in formation, and we might easily set up counter to Hoffmann's theory the explanation of root-aorists as imperfects of the root-class, if we chose to quibble about names. Indeed, these forms can be distinguished only by a syntactical test which admits of being made in R. V. between the 'true-perfect' value of the aor. and the merely past signification of the impf., and this test our author should have made before setting up his theory.

Further, many Vedic roots appear as root-presents only, disappearing in the later language altogether. What is the explanation of such sporadic forms? Plainly this, it seems to me. They are survivals, and of a particularly antique nature. The explanation from analogy cannot be duly applied, for the analogies all lead to the devouring thematic type. It must be remembered that analogy is an economy of thought, as phonetic law is an economy of utterance, and in the forms under discussion analogy could only lead, speaking in the large, to the dead level of thematic inflection.

The accentual phenomena accompanying strong and weak stems in the rootpresent seem to be of a more archaic nature than the set accent of the thematic types.

If non-thematic inflection is of secondary origin, the next shift of the

kaleidoscope will be to that theory of dissyllabic roots of which Fick is so enthusiastic an advocate. We shall no longer write \(\psi\)bher, but \(\psi\)bhere/\(\sigma\) as Milton said that 'new presbyter is but old priest writ large.'

On p. 78 we have an investigation of the so-called Fick's law that I. E.  $\underline{i}$  appears in Greek as  $\iota$  if the accent originally followed, but as j when it preceded. This is extended by Hoffmann with apparent correctness to such a statement as the following: 'I. E.  $\underline{i}$  appears as j in Gk. if the accent directly preceded, but as  $\iota$  if the accent had any other position.' Germanists will be interested to see how this tallies with Verner's law.

Some minor corrections remain to be made: p. 10,  $are\bar{a}$  cited as the only 1st sing. subj. of the shorter form in the tud-class should be followed by  $mad\bar{a}$  (Wh. 737). P. 43 we have an I. E. sido posited from Sk. sidati, Lat. sido.  $i\zeta\omega$  is explained from \*sidio. The old explanation by reduplication explains all the forms. si-sid-si-sid-sid-, but in Gk. si-zd-si- $i\zeta$ : Dor.  $lo\delta$ -, is here important, for sidi- would give Dor.  $l\delta\delta$ -, cf. Brug. Gr. Gram. §41 in the Handbuch.  $bh\ell$ -n-dho, p. 58, is given to the infix-nasal class, but there is no evidence for anything but  $bh\ell ndho$ . Possibly  $sp\ell$ -n-do is in the same case. We have, to be sure,  $\sigma\phi\epsilon\delta$ - $av\delta\varsigma$  beside  $\sigma\phi\epsilon\nu\delta\delta$ - $\nu\eta$ , and  $\sigma\phi\sigma\delta$ - $\rho\delta\varsigma$  is in proper ablaut relations with it, but there is a variant reading  $\sigma\phi a\delta av\delta\varsigma$  (condemned by Aristarchus) for Homer which looks to a \* $\sigma\phi\rho\sigma\delta$ - $\rho\delta\varsigma$ , and we might suspect in  $\sigma\phi\epsilon\delta av\delta\varsigma$  a popular etymology from  $\sigma\phi\epsilon\nu\delta\delta$ - $\nu\eta$ .  $\sigma\phi\sigma\delta$ - $\rho\delta\varsigma$  is easy of explanation from \* $\sigma\phi\alpha\delta$ - $\rho\sigma\varsigma$  as a labialization.

On p. 73 we have a queer statement à propos of Sk. edhi < as "dhi (sic): Die Erscheinung, dass von einem klingenden consonanten nur i übrig bleibt ist im indischen perfectum durchgehend: sédimd < saix "dimd < sax "dimd, pécimd < paip "cemd < pap "cimd. To avoid the explanation by analogy—to which he resorts readily enough in support of his favorite thesis of aoristically derived presents—Hoffmann ignores the fundamental distinction between surd and sonant, actually allowing a surd to give compensatory lengthening—for that is how the above statement results.

In the list of acrists in -it, on p. 132, barhit and varhit are given as separate words! codis, dhvanit, dhāyis (?), stambhit and sedhis are omitted, while yāsit is given, in reality a -się-acrist.

On p. 134 Hoffmann makes an explanation of brdvīmi, tāvīti, çvdsiti, etc., that I am glad to accept, when he accounts for the stem as derived from aorists in -is, -it. I fully agree with him also in explaining āsīs, āsīt, abravīs, abravīt as aorists.

Finally, there occurs on p. 100 a sentence that M. Victor Henry, who reviewed this book in the Revue Critique, 2-9, Sept. 1889, felt impelled to criticise sharply in the interest of scientific spirit and method: "Δίδοσαι," writes our author, "geht auf älteres \*δίδοαι zurück: das -σ der endung wurde wohl deshalb nachträglich wieder eingefügt, weil man eine contraktion von \*δίδοαι vermeiden wollte." Whereupon M. Henry remarks: "Je n'insiste pas; qui de nous n'a à se reprocher d'avoir, au moins une fois en sa vie, écrit une énormité pareille?"

Hoffmann's views are sure to produce discussion whatever the final verdict may be in regard to them. We must wait with interest to hear what such masters as Brugmann, de Saussure, and Ascoli think of his original contribution to the points he has discussed.

EDWIN WHITFIELD FAY.

HARVARD STUDIES IN CLASSICAL PHILOLOGY. Edited by a Committee of the Classical Instructors of Harvard University. Vol. I, 1890. Boston, Ginn & Company.

A prefatory note states that "these studies are published by authority of Harvard University, and will be contributed chiefly by its instructors and graduates, although contributions from other sources will not necessarily be excluded. The publication is supported by a fund of \$6000, generously subscribed by the class of 1856. A volume of about 200 pages will be issued yearly."

Vol. I contains the following articles: The Fauces of the Roman House, J. B. Greenough (cut). Opinions of previous writers concerning the position of the fauces are mentioned, after which Vitruvius, VI 1-4, is discussed in connection with the use of the word fauces by other authors. The result of the investigation is to show that the fauces were the entrance to the atrium. The same conclusion was reached by Ivanhoff, *Annali dell' Istituto*, 1859, p. 82, and adopted by von Rohden, *Baumeister*, *Denkmäler*, p. 1366.

De Ignis Eliciendi Modis apud Antiquos, M. H. Morgan. This article was written for the purpose of obtaining the degree of Ph. D. The ancients kindled fires from fires already burning whenever that was possible. When a new fire had to be started various means were employed. The most primitive method is by rubbing two sticks together, but this was early superseded by the practice of twirling a stick (πυρεῖου, ignitabulum, igniarium) in a hole made in a board or other piece of wood. This could be twirled by rubbing it alternately with the hands or by twisting a cord about it and pulling the ends of the cord alternately. The latter method makes two persons necessary. To obviate this difficulty the ends of the string were fastened to the ends of a bow-shaped stick, which could be moved back and forth with one hand, thus pulling the ends of the cord alternately. This instrument was the ἀρίς. The word στορεύς in Hesych. and the scholiast on Apollonius Rhodius is a mistake for τορεύς, which is equivalent to τρύπανον or πυρείον. The best material for the πυρείον was the laurel or a wild vine, for the wood in which the mupeiov was turned (ἐσχάρα, tabula) the ivy. The first mention of a spark struck from two stones is found in Soph. Phil. 295. This method remained in use longer than any other. The stones best fitted for this purpose were flint and pyrites, a copper ore. The use of iron for striking a spark from stone is first mentioned by Lucretius, 6, 162, and seems not to have been common. The spark was caught in sulphur, dry fungi, leaves or shavings. The reed (νάρθηξ, ferula) was used, not as fuel, but for the purpose of covering and preserving live coals. The use of glass to kindle fire by the rays of the sun is mentioned by Aristophanes (Nub. 764 sqq.), but was evidently unusual in his time. The shape recom-, mended by Pliny is that of a ball. Crystal was not known in early times, but Pliny mentions the use of a crystal ball in cautery, and later writers also speak of its use as a burning-glass. Fire was also kindled by reflection of the sun's rays from a concave mirror. This method is mentioned by Euclid, Plutarch and Pliny. The mirrors were of metal, not glass. A combination of plane mirrors can be made to cause fire, but the story that Archimedes set fire to the ships of Marcellus by such means is rejected as false. The story may be founded upon experiments which Archimedes may have recorded. On the

first of March of every year the vestal virgins kindled anew the sacred fire. This they did by friction. The passage in Plutarch, v. Num. IX, which seems to contradict this statement, refers to Greek, not to Roman matters, and is interpolated besides. Julian, Orat. ad Solem regem, p. 155 A, refers probably to Byzantine affairs. The instrument mentioned in the rejected passage in Plutarch, by which the sun's rays kindled a fire, was a prism or cube from which part of the upper surface was cut out in a parabolic curve so as to concentrate the sun's rays by reflection.

On the Origin of the Construction of  $o\dot{v}$   $\mu\dot{\eta}$  with the Subjunctive and the Future Indicative, W. W. Goodwin. The independent subjunctive with  $\mu\dot{\eta}$  was used as "an expression of apprehension with desire to avert its object ... The aorist subjunctive is the most common form here, the present being less frequent." The subjunctive with  $o\dot{v}$   $\mu\dot{\eta}$  is the negative of the subjunctive with  $\mu\dot{\eta}$ . "This form of future denial next admitted the future indicative in the same sense as the subjunctive. The second person singular of this future with  $o\dot{v}$   $\mu\dot{\eta}$  was used by the dramatists as a prohibition, without abandoning the sense which the future can always have in both positive and negative commands. In these prohibitions the future indicative, in which they had their origin, is generally used; but the subjunctive occasionally occurs, being analogous to

the ordinary aorist subjunctive with uh in prohibitions." On some Disputed Points in the Construction of ¿δει, χρήν, etc., with the Infinitive, W. W. Goodwin. It is generally laid down as an absolute rule that when ἐδει (χρῆν, etc.) is used without ἀν with the infinitive, the opposite of the infinitive is always implied, and that when av is used, the opposite of the verbs of necessity (obligation, etc.) is implied, e. g. that with έδει τοῦτο γίγνεσθαι we must understand άλλ' οὐ γίγνεται, with έδει αν τοῦτο γίγνεσθαι we must understand άλλ' οὐ δεῖ. This does not cover all cases, e. g. Hdt. I 39 εἰ ὑπὸ ὁδόντος είπε τελευτήσειν με, χρην δή σε ποιέειν τὰ ποιέεις, and concessive sentences, in which the statement precludes the contrary of the apodosis, as Hdt. VII 56, Isoc. XVIII 19. In some concessive sentences the action of the infinitive is denied, notwithstanding the concessive protasis, e. g. Soph. O. T. 255, Thuc. I 38. The following rules cover all cases: I. "The form without av is used when the infinitive is the principal word, on which the chief force of the expression falls, while the leading verb is an auxiliary which we can express by ought, might, could, or by an adverb. 2. On the other hand, when the chief force falls on the necessity, propriety, or possibility of the act, and not on the act itself, the leading verb has av, like any other imperfect in a similar apodosis." In all examples of Edet av " we find Edet av in its meaning there would be (or would have been) need, whereas in the form without av we generally have έδει in the sense of ought, expressing obligation and not necessity." έδει αν differs from έδει without ἀν in meaning as well as in balance of emphasis. έξην ἀν differs from ¿çqu only in the latter respect. In opposition to La Roche, the integrity of two passages (Dem. XVIII 195, Lys. XII 32) in which χρήν ἀν occurs is maintained. In the use of licebat, debebat, etc. (= ἐξῆν, χρῆν, etc.), and liceret, deberet (= έξην αν, χρην αν), the Latin follows the same principle as the Greek. But when these expressions refer to past time, the Latin uses debuit or debuerat in the sense of χρην, debuisset in that of χρην αν.

Notes on Quintilian, G. M. Lane. The original long quantity of the o of

the genitive plural ending -om is shown (1) by the dropping of the final m on coins struck before the Punic war; (2) by the apex occurring in the inscription of Nuceria, IRN. 2096; CIL. X, n. 1081: DVVMVIRATVS, which proves the length of the u in this genitive. Quintilian, I 6, 18, mistakes the genitives plural nummum and deum for misused accusatives singular, showing that in his day the long  $\delta$  or  $\bar{u}$  was forgotten. Quintilian, I 4, 27, gives lectum as a word which may be a participium or an appellatio. But lectum, 'bed,' has a short  $\ell$ , while lectum, 'picked,' has a long  $\bar{e}$ . Read, therefore, tectum. The passage I 4, 16, which the last editors, Halm and Meister, read thus: quid o atque u permutata innicem? ut 'Hecoba' et 'pnotrix,' 'Culcides' et 'Pulixena' scriberentur, is emended by reading 'nutrix Culcidis.' The nurse of Medea is well known.

Some Latin Etymologies, J. B. Greenough. The words reciprocus, proximus, procus (in the sense of foremost man), procees, procax, Proculus, procul, are all derived from + procus = pro + cus. Of these, reciprocus is a compound of + recus and + procus, meaning back and forth. From + recus come also recipero and recens. The fundamental meaning of improbus has not been clearly understood. Probus is pro + bus, the use of pro being analogous to that of super in superbus. Probus appears to have been a mercantile word, meaning AI or first-class. Then improbus means not first-class, second rate, etc. Rudimentum is derived from rudis, foil or stick, through a real or supposed verb rudio, fence with the foil. Rudimentum is then foil-practice, the first practice of the soldier, hence first attempts generally. From rudis an adjective erudis would mean out of the foil, and from this erudio naturally means train to the point of graduation from mere foil-practice. Desidero is derived from an adjective † desides (or desider). The original meaning of sidus was probably place. Then + desider or the phrase de sidere would mean out of place, and desidero would mean mark or find out of place after a battle or military casualty. This military sense of the word is common.' Considero may have had a similar origin from an adjective + consides (or -er). Elementum is derived from LMN, el, em, en. Praemium is derived from prae and emo (in its earlier sense of take) and means 'the part of the booty taken out beforehand' as a reward for merit, then reward generally. Deliciae and delicatus point to delicus and † delico. Varro uses delicus to mean a young weaned pig. The word, if applied to lambs or kids, might easily mean pet, from which † delico with its participle delicatus; deliciae is then an abstract noun used, however, ordinarily as a concrete. Provincia is derived from pro and vinco through a + provincus. A consul engaged in extending the Roman dominion would be provincus, and his sphere of operations his provincia. From this meaning the others are developed.

On Egregium Publicum (Tac. Ann. III 70, 4), C. L. Smith. In the words "Capito insignitior fama fuit quod humani divinique iuris sciens egregium publicum et bonas artes dehonestavisset," Capito's eminence as a lawyer must be expressed as one of the objects of dehonestavisset. This relation is not contained in the words as they stand. For egregium publicum read egregium publice locum.

On the use of the Perfect Infinitive in Latin with the Force of the Present, A. A. Howard. "In early Latin the perfect infinitive with its proper significance was made to depend on the verb nolo or nolo in prohibitions; but since

the verb of wishing contained the idea of futurity, the whole clause acquired the force of a future perfect expression. Later writers, and especially the poets, transferred this use to negative clauses not prohibitive, containing verbs of wishing, and secondly to clauses containing verbs like laboro, amo, and timeo, 'Verba der Willensrichtung.' Since these verbs contain the idea of futurity, the present infinitive joined with them has the force of a future, the perfect infinitive the force of a future perfect. The tendency of the Latin writers to use the future perfect for the future, through an overstrained desire to be exact, led them in these clauses to use the perfect infinitive instead of the present. The poets, and especially the elegiac poets, took advantage of the opportunity thus offered and transferred the use to other constructions which did not contain a verb of wishing. The reasons for this were two: first, the present infinitive of a large number of verbs which they wished to use, could not, on account of metrical difficulties, be used in their verse, or could be used only under certain restrictions; second, the perfect infinitive of these verbs was peculiarly adapted to the necessities of the last half of pentameter verse. The infinitive in this use seemed to have the force of an aorist infinitive in Greek, and, in course of time, came to be used by the poets even where the metre admitted the use of the present infinitive."

Plutarch  $\pi \epsilon \rho i \epsilon i \theta \nu \mu i a c$ , H. N. Fowler. In this little treatise Plutarch does not, as R. Hirzel thinks, follow Panaetius for the most part, but derives his philosophical doctrines, as well as his anecdotes and quotations, chiefly from common-place books or anthologies, which he supplements by the results of his own reading.

Vitruviana, G. M. Richardson. The following peculiarities in Vitruvius' use of words are noticed: The limitative use of the preposition ab (I I, 17); the descriptive use of cum, the preposition with its noun having the force of an adjective or adverb (I 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, III I, 4); aliter repeated with atque as its connective (I I, 7); nec strengthened by a following negative (I I, 14); oppido followed by quam (I 3, 7, VII Praef. 14, VIII 3, 11, IX (2) 2); quemadmodum used as a relative to introduce a clause with or without a corresponding adverb, or to introduce an illustrative clause (in the sense "for example"), or to introduce a single word with the ellipsis of the verbal idea, and lastly quemadmodum as an interrogative (numerous examples); the repetition in the apodosis of the word which in the protasis forms the conditional particle (sic, si, I 2, 7); the use of ut in wishes, etc. (I I, 3, VIII 7, 1); the indicative in indirect questions (II 6, 4, II 8, I8, II 9, I7, etc.); the infinitive as predicate after esse (II 9, 15); putare, in the sense of "intend" with complementary infinitive (II 1, 18).

The Social and Domestic Position of Women in Aristophanes, H. W. Haley. Women were held in low estimation both by men and by themselves. Perhaps the plays of Euripides helped to form this unfavorable estimate. Women were not the equals and confidants of their husbands. They were not allowed to appear in public, but were confined to the house, though married women had more liberty than the unmarried, and even the unmarried had considerable liberty in connection with religious festivals, marriage, and burial. Women appear to have been present at the performance of tragedies, but not of comedies. The chief domestic duties of women were the preparation of wool, spinning, weaving, etc. Cooking was usually done by slaves, and in wealthy

families the care of children was 'entrusted to slaves. Women learned the elements of letters, besides singing and dancing. For other information they depended upon conversation with their husbands and male relatives.

Notes. F. D. Allen. ψανος, attributed to Alcman in Schol. A, Iliad M 137, is miswritten for φαῦος = φάος. In CIL. I 199, faenisicei is an error of the graver for faenisicie, the ablative of a + faenisicies, the counterpart of faenisicia. In Schol. Arist. Ran. 13, for φορτικευομένου read φορτακευομένου, and in Suidas s. v. Λύκις read εφορτακεύετο for εφορτικεύετο. In the Heraclean tables, I 105 fig. άρτύω is explained as referring to partnership, and translated 'make a compact' or 'go shares.' Aristophanes, Frogs 179 flg. are arranged in this order: 179, 181, 182, 183, 180, 184, the words in 181, τουτί τί ἐστι, being given to Dionysos, and ώδπ, παραβαλοῦ (180) to Xanthias. In Herod. VI 57, the words τρίτην δὲ την έωυτῶν are regarded as an interpolation.—J. B. G. Martial V 78, v. 32 is explained as a question. The guest is asked who the fourth person at the banquet shall be .- G. M. L. Ellum is shown to be formed from em illum; cf. A. Spengel on Ter. Andria, 855.—A general index and an index of citations close the volume. H. N. F.

Gudrun, a Mediaeval Epic, translated from the Middle-High-German by Mary Pickering Nichols. Boston and New York, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The Riverside Press, Cambridge, 1889. xv and 363 pp. Price \$2.50.

In the translation of a classical poem like Gudrun one of at least three methods may be pursued: (1) a literal prose rendering of the original, a "halftruth," may be given, with greatest success, perhaps, "in words that are old and plain," as in the case of the Butcher-Lang Odyssey, or the Lang-Leaf-Meyers Iliad; (2) the translator may reproduce the essential content and spirit, "fairly and honestly give the sense" in a more modern form of verse, as the Earl of Derby did in his Iliad, or Birch in his Nibelungenlied; (3) the essential content and spirit and also the original verse-form may be reproduced in a modern tongue, as in the case of Aubertin's Lusiads and Miss Nichols' Gudrun, the work under review. This last is certainly the ideal mode of rendering an ancient epic; for thus not only the flavor and color, but also the rhythmic effect of the original can be transmitted to the modern reader. Compare the following strophe (389) of the original, describing the effect of the Orphean strains of Horant's song, and the translation by Miss Nichols:

> Diu tier in dem walde die würme, die då solden in dem grase gên die vische, die då solden die liezen ir geverte.

ir weide liezen stên in dem wage vliezen, jå kunde er siner fuoge wol geniezen.

### Translation:

The wild beasts in the forest The little worms that creeping The fishes, too, that ever All now stopped to listen;

let their pasture grow; through grass are wont to go, amidst the waves were swimming, the singer's heart with pride was overbrimming.

Thus it will be observed that the Gudrun strophe:

is faithfully preserved. To be sure, the reader, if acquainted only with modern verse-forms, may find this ancient measure a trifle puzzling at the first glance, but will need to read only a few verses in order to be charmed by the magic power of the rhythm and the epic effect of the last verse of the strophe. To one interested in the psychology of rhythmic forms this fourth verse furnishes a suggestive subject for experiment.

To the student of Gudrun, however, two features of the form of Miss Nichols' translation seem open to criticism. It is well known that the Gudrun epic, as we have it, is interspersed with frequent Nibelungen strophes. Instead of rendering these into the strophic form of the original, the translator has turned all the Nibelungen strophes into Gudrun strophes. Simrock's N. H. German translation, on the contrary, retains the form of the Nibelungen strophes. The second vulnerable point in the form of the translation is its abundance of imperfect rhymes. This is the more striking because the original is almost faultless in its rhymes. Examples are: (masculine) maid: head; arms: warms; fair: near; far: spare; known: soon; (a)bide: did; come: home; (feminine) merry: weary; fitted: greeted; listen: hasten; heareth: beareth; dealing: dwelling; mourning; turning. As will be readily marked, many of these are only assonance. These weaknesses in the strophic structure detract greatly from the faithfulness of the translation, so true in other respects.

Let us examine the rendering of the content of the poem. The best criterion of a masterly translation of an ancient poem is that it transfer the reader into the antique atmosphere of the original without forcing upon him violent forms of speech, a fault which some otherwise well equipped translators have not avoided. In this respect the translator of Gudrun is remarkably successful. Occasional archaisms are not of such a character as to call for more than a passing notice; cf. "Twould glad me greatly," 385, 4, and "This is true, I weet," 207, 2.

As might be expected from the very nature of the difficulty of adapting the Gudrun verse to English expression, many infelicitous renderings are to be found. Cf. the following: Str. 68, 2-3,

iedoch het ez besunder darumbe grôze nôt, wan ez der alde grife den sinen jungen truoc.

But none the less he later a life of sadness led,

After the harsh old griffin back to his nestlings bore him.

Cf. Simrock's translation of this strophe. So strophe 79, 4; 84, 4; 1041, 4; 1042, 4 and others.

Miss Nichols, as she states in the preface, has followed the text of Bartsch's edition. This is true not only of the text, but of the notes as well. The translation might have been improved in certain places by adopting suggestions of other editors; for example, in strophe 21, by rendering das kreftige

gnot, verse 1, as in apposition with hubbe (cf. Symons' ed., notes to this passage). So also in strophe 116, verse 2, Symons refers the word ungewonheite ("wondrous dwelling," Nichols) not to their "ungewohnte Umgebung" (Bartsch), but to "das ungewohnte tragen fremder Kleider" (cf. also C. Hofmann, s. 226 f.) So other passages might be cited where preferable rendering could have been adopted; cf. Symons' notes on str. 97, 4; 153, 2; 1147, 1 and others. Martin and Symons seem to have been seldom consulted in the translation.

Cases of redundant filling to complete the measure are frequent; cf. str. 424, 4; 548, 3-4; 637, 4.

Names of persons have been wisely retained in their original form, as Wate, Horant, Sigeband, Ute and others; but geographical names are treated more freely. In some cases unjustifiable irregularities have crept in. In str. 204, 1 Danelande, renders correctly the original Tenelant, so str. 242, 3 Denmark, Tenemarke; but why Daneland for Tenemarke, str. 206, 1; 1612, 4, is not apparent.

But these matters of detail do not seriously impair the real value of the translation. The translator has done her work with a master-hand, and added a long neglected monument of Middle-High-German epic song to the list of classical English translations. Miss Nichols' Gudrun deserves a place by the side of Aubertin's Lusiads and Longfellow's and Dean Plumptre's Divina Comoedia. The Nibelungenlied has not yet found an English translator so competent.

M. D. LEARNED.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Edited by JAMES A. H. MURRAY. Part V, Cast-Clivy. Oxford, At The Clarendon Press. New York, Macmillan & Co., 1889.

Part V of the New English Dictionary should have been noticed before in this Journal. It is, as the preceding parts have been, full of information and interest. Dr. Murray tells us that it contains 8371 words. This is fewer than any part has contained except the first (8365). A rough calculation makes the average of the five parts about 8700 each, which would give about 208,000 words for the whole work, or deducting 25 per cent for obsolete words, the present English vocabulary may be estimated at about 156,000 words. It is likely to be rather more than less than this. But, as the large majority of these words are unknown to literature, this method of counting fails to give an adequate idea of the resources of the language. Perhaps some statistician with a plenty of leisure may, by suitable deductions, make this calculation for us.

Every page shows the labor that has been expended upon this unrivalled work. Take the first word Cast, and it fills, as both noun and verb, over twenty columns. Church alone fills ten columns, and with its compounds about ten more.

Great attention has been paid to securing etymological accuracy, as the exhaustive discussion of *Church* shows. Dr. Murray gives his adhesion to the view that it is derived from the Greek κυριακόν (sc.  $\delta \tilde{\omega} \mu a$ , or the like), "which occurs, from the third century at least, used substantively = 'house of the Lord,' as a name of the Christian house of worship." He says further that "the

use of kupuakh in Greek appears too late to affect the question." Cirice, circe, are regarded as the oldest English forms, not cyrice, which is a later variant, and these correspond to a West Germanic kirika. "Although the notion has been advanced that all the continental forms originated in the O. E., in connexion with the early missionary labors of Englishmen in Germany, this is philologically untenable, and the word is held on good grounds to be common W. Ger., and to go back at least to the fourth or fifth century." The whole discussion, which fills nearly two columns, is an interesting one and will well repay perusal. The earliest example of the use of the word in English writing is taken from the Laws of King Wihtraed, A. D. 696, but it doubtless goes back to the coming of St. Augustine, one hundred years earlier.

It is difficult to make selections in order to give an idea of the fullness of the work, but, as a point of present interest, it may be mentioned that Dr. Murray is no stickler for particular forms of spelling. He gives both centre and center, though plainly preferring the former, and says: "The prevalent spelling from sixteenth to eighteenth century was center, in Shakspere, Milton, Boyle, Pope, Addison, etc.; so the early dictionaries, Cotgr. ('centre, F., a center'), Cockeram, Phillips, Kersey, and all the thirty editions of Bailey 1721-1802; but the technical volume of Bailey (Vol. II) 1727-31, and the folio 1730-36, have centre; 'an interleaved copy of the folio of 1730 was the foundation of Johnson's Dictionary,' which followed it in spelling centre; this has been generally adopted in Great Britain, while center is the prevalent spelling in the United States." The last statement may be true, and if so, it is due to the influence of Noah Webster in the northern section of the United States, but the majority of educated persons in this latitude spell centre. It is, however, a matter of small consequence, and this quotation shows, what has been asserted before, that the forms of modern English spelling are due chiefly to Dr. Johnson, who, unfortunately, did not take advantage of his opportunity to correct some of the bad spelling of his time.

It is interesting to note in respect to another point that chock-full is the better substantiated form, although choke-full is also given. Dr. Murray says: "The American lexicographers have chock-full as the standard form with choke-full as a cross-reference; and this appears to agree with literary usage in U. S. Choke-full appears to be rather the more frequent in literary use in England; but chock-full is almost universal in spoken use; chuck-full, in literary use before and after 1800, is now only dialectal." After discussing the derivation, which is unsettled, and the forms in the English dialect glossaries, he concludes, "Choke-full appears to have no local status, . . . being thus merely a book-spelling founded upon a conjectural derivation." Chuck-full, I may add, is illiterate usage here.

Under U. S. colloquialisms we find Bret Harte (1870) and Mark Twain (1872) as authorities for *To hand (pass) in one's checks*, but the phrases are much older than either of those dates.

It is strange that the Slang Dictionary (1873) is the earliest authority for chips = money, and no example is found of the present fashionable use of chips in card-playing, although the word is defined as "a counter used in games of chance." Bret Harte (1870) is again the earliest authority for chip in in the sense of interrupting a conversation, and this is the only use of that term men-

tioned. Among the phrases in which chip occurs I fail to find knock a chip off one's head, but perhaps English boys are not as familiar with the custom as American. It is interesting to note that Milton uses chip of the old block, and Bishop Sanderson has chip of the same block, in a metaphorical sense.

We have a most interesting discussion of the two verbs cleave, to split, and cleave, to cling to, the former being originally a strong u-verb, and the latter a strong i-verb and also weak. Dr. Murray well says: "From the fourteenth century the inflexional forms of this verb [Cleave1] have tended to run together with those of Cleave3, 'to stick.' Though the latter was originally clive, it had also the variants cleave, cleve, the latter of which at length prevailed; the two verbs having thus become identical in the present stem were naturally confused in their other inflexions." If the forms cleve and clive, which existed in the fourteenth century, could have been kept separate, this confusion might possibly have been avoided, but in language there is no place for the "might have been." We have to take it as it is, and try to explain the apparently arbitrary variations as best we can by known phonetic laws.

To the examples of Clergy in the sense of "learning, scholarship, science," I may add the following from Gower's Confessio Amantis, II 82, 10, which may come in well between the example from the Metrical Homilies (1325) and that from the York Mysteries (1440):

"In the cronique as I finde
Cham, whos labour is yet in minde,
Was he, which first the letters fonde
And wrote in Hebreu with his honde,
Of natural philosophy
He found first also the clergy."

This is a plain statement, according to Gower, that Ham not only invented the letters of the Hebrew alphabet, but discovered also the science of natural philosophy. (One cannot read a page of Gower without wishing that some English scholar who has access to the MSS would undertake a revision of Pauli's text, but I suppose it will be left for the inevitable German to do.) The last example of this use of clergy is from a dictionary of 1690 in the proverb: "An ounce of mother-wit is worth a pound of clergy," though Sydney Smith (1822) also quotes the proverb. But one cannot tell where to stop in turning over the leaves of this great dictionary. I can only again express the hope that it may be found practicable, by increasing the editorial staff, to issue the several parts at shorter intervals.

JAMES M. GARNETT.

A History of Elizabethan Literature. By George Saintsbury. London and New York, Macmillan & Co., 1887.

A History of Eighteenth Century Literature (1660-1780). By EDMUND GOSSE, M.A. London and New York, Macmillan & Co., 1889.

Although not strictly "philological," the importance of the two volumes above mentioned may justify a brief notice in this Journal. An advertisement prefixed to the former work states that it " is intended to form the second

volume of a History of English Literature, divided into four main periods, each of which is entrusted to a writer who has made that period his particular study. The volume on the Earliest Period of English Literature has been undertaken by Mr. STOPFORD BROOKE, the volume dealing with the Literature of the Eighteenth Century by Mr. EDMUND GOSSE, and that on Modern Literature by Professor DOWDEN. It is hoped that these volumes may be issued at no very distant date."

As may be seen, Mr. Gosse has fulfilled his task; not so Mr. Brooke and Professor Dowden, so that I may be permitted to concur in the hope expressed in the concluding sentence of the advertisement. I may say in the beginning that I wish Mr. Gosse had imitated Mr. Saintsbury in prefixing an analytical table of contents to his volume. It is a great convenience to the reader to have the several subjects of a chapter at hand for reference, for no one can tell beforehand who besides "Pope" are treated in a chapter thus headed. As a matter of fact, Addison, Pomfret, and John Philips precede Pope, and Prior, Gay, Parnell, Ambrose Philips, Tickell, Somerville, Croxall, and Allan Ramsay follow him, in very brief notices, and we have no analysis of the contents of the twenty-five pages on Pope. This heaping-up of minor writers in brief notices is, too, a fault that may be found with both works, perhaps to a greater extent with Mr. Saintsbury's than with Mr. Gosse's book, for there were more very minor writers during that period. In a History of English Literature it does not seem to me to be necessary to include everybody who may have scribbled a scrap of prose or poetry. They have been consigned to oblivion for several centuries, and in oblivion they may well remain. They may possibly be included in dictionaries of authors, but not in histories of literature. As an extreme illustration of what I mean, I find in the contents of Mr. Saintsbury's tenth chapter on "Caroline Poetry" the name Montrose, and when I search that chapter to learn something about him, all I find is (p. 392): " I should not like to have to choose between Herrick and Milton's earlier poems; between Herrick, Carew, Crashaw, Montrose, Lovelace, and Suckling combined on the one hand, and The Faërie Queene on the other." I do not find him mentioned in any History of Literature accessible to me, but presumably James Grahame, Marquis of Montrose (1612-50), better known as a historical than as a literary character, who, Allibone tells us under Grahame, "wrote a number of poems," is referred to; so this entry serves as a mere index of mention. Others are treated at more or less length, but the space occupied by these might well have been given to the treatment of more prominent writers.

Mr. Saintsbury purposely pays little attention to "what some moderns call the 'bio-bibliographical' side of the matter," but I could wish that he had paid more, for one does not like to have to refer to one book for such details and to another for the criticism. He says: "My dates and my biographical facts I take for the most part from others." The biographical facts are scanty, and the dates are often given only in the index. I rather agree with Mr. Gosse, who, while apologizing for his profusion of dates, says: "I have the impression that dates, if reasonably treated, present a great assistance to the comparative student, and really should prevent, instead of causing, interruption"—and he is right, me judice. In studying literature we want to know the man as well as the book, and we cannot get at that without some knowledge of his life,

which the historian of literature should give. But after saying my say on these points, I must thank both of these authors for the additions which they have made to genuine criticism of English literature. Their names and styles are too well known to dwell on, but I could wish that Mr. Saintsbury had stricken out some of his French and other foreign terms and thus given us a purer English. Mr. Gosse seems to have pruned the exuberance of his style, as seen in some of his other works, and thus improved it.

The necessary brevity of this notice will not admit of an examination of the critical judgments of these authors, but I may call special attention to Mr. Saintsbury's criticism of Milton, both of his character and of his writings. After the fulsome eulogy that we often see bestowed upon Milton by critics, it is refreshing to meet with sentences like the following (p. 317): "On the whole Milton's character was not an amiable one, nor even wholly estimable." And here follows what is, in my opinion, a very just criticism of that character. Milton possessed all the egotism and the prejudices of the most partisan Puritan, and it is well that somebody has at last been found to say it. Mr. Saintsbury considers that in Comus " Milton's poetical power is at its greatest height," while Mr. Pattison ten years ago called Lycidas the "high-water mark of English poetry." But whatever may be true as to the comparative superiority of Milton's several poetical works, Mr. Saintsbury gives us a very just judgment of his prose, unless perhaps he overrates its merits. He says (p. 322): "There is no English prose before him, none save Taylor's and Browne's in his time, and absolutely none after him that can compare with the finest passages of these singular productions." That may be, but we cannot judge an author by his "finest passages," and the criticism that follows seems to me more judicious. Mr. Saintsbury does not minimize the faults of Milton's prose, but he considers it very fine notwithstanding. He says, however (p. 326): "It might be contended with some plausibility that this abundance of jewels, or purple patches" [a phrase of which Mr. S. is very fond, as it perpetually recurs], " brings into rather unfair prominence the slips of grammar and taste, the irregularities of thought, the deplorable attempts to be funny, the rude outbursts of bargee invective, which also occur so numerously." These certainly detract from excellence of style, and I rather prefer the simplicity of old Fuller, whom Mr. S. relegates to a minor place in "Caroline Prose," and the smoothness of Jeremy Taylor, when he is not talking of "the fringes of the north star," to the cumbrous sentences of Milton, even in the Areopagitica, that much over-praised work. This chapter, however, well deserves study, for Mr. S. limits himself here to a discussion of Milton, Taylor, Clarendon, Browne and Hobbes, and has given us some interesting criticism. I must refer to Mr. S.'s criticism of Ben Jonson, and especially of his prose style (pp. 218, 219), even though we have so little of it. He very rightly praises "the straightforward, vigorous English of these Discoveries," which contain "an admirable short tractate on style which exemplifies what it preaches; and a large number of other excellent things." It may be noted in passing that Mr. Swinburne, in his recent work, "A Study of Ben Jonson," is in full agreement with Mr. Saintsbury as to the excellence of Ben Jonson's prose. Attention may also be directed to what Mr. Saintsbury has said of Shakspere's Sonnets (pp. 161-4) and the questions connected therewith. As Carlyle said of the authorship of the Letters of Junius, "it doesn't matter the value of a brass farthing" who "Mr. W. H." was, or "the dark lady," or "the rival poet." Those who have abundance of leisure may busy themselves with these questions, but the ordinary reader will enjoy the Sonnets apart from them, and moreover will not consider that all of the Sonnets are equally enjoyable, as Shakspere-maniacs are prone to do, who will not permit adverse criticism of any of them.

The limits of this notice will permit but a few remarks on Mr. Gosse's book. Without the fear of Mr. Collins before his eyes, Mr. Gosse starts out with giving Waller the credit for the introduction of the heroic couplet, and calls Denham "his first disciple" (p. 4), stating that he "had perceived and had accepted the reform suggested by Waller," and quoting Dryden's testimony to the effect that Denham followed Waller. Cowley's "Song" is pronounced "unnavigable," though his prose receives its due meed of praise: "Cowley's Essays should be read by every student of English prose." But most noticeable is his criticism of the dii majores of this period, Dryden and Pope, and especially a brief parallel between the two (pp. 24, 25 and p. 133), wherein Dryden very rightly takes precedence. Mr. Gosse discusses Pope at greater length than any other single writer, if I remember rightly, and is inclined to apologize for his faults, attributing them to his physical weakness (p. 132). But we cannot so easily excuse Pope's conduct, for he was, as Mr. Gosse acknowledges, "an unscrupulous and intriguing trickster." If one wishes a good account of the Pope-Addison episode, let him read and compare Mr. Stephen's Pope and Mr. Courthope's Addison in the "English Men of Letters" series, a series of literary biographies that gives a better idea of the men, as well as their works, than is elsewhere to be found in brief in English literature. Pope is rightly given credit for polishing the heroic couplet, a credit that no one wishes to deny him, but it may well be inquired, "Does that constitute a great poet?" and we are forced to concur in the apt criticism: "He has no romance, no spirituality, no mystery, and the highest regions of poetry he never so much as dreams of" (p. 133). We heartily sympathize too with what Mr. Gosse has to say of Dryden's prose (pp. 90-94): "He is the manliest, the most straightforward, the most authoritative prose writer of the age, and, in his long career of more than thirty years, he surveyed and laid out the whole estate of modern English prose"; and again: "He is not only a fine dramatist and a very lofty poet, but a great pioneer in prose criticism also." But for Dryden the Queen Anne writers would have found their task much more difficult, and the cultivation of English prose might have been postponed to a much later period.

We can generally agree with Mr. Gosse's criticisms, but I think he unduly depreciates Bolingbroke's style, i. e. judging from his Letters on the Study of History. He says (p. 174): "His boasted style, though unquestionably lucid, is slipshod and full of platitudes, grandiloquent and yet ineffectual." Now this seems to me to be going too far, for in the history of English prose Bolingbroke must be taken into account. I shall merely set opposite to it the judgment of a scholar, which appears to me more just. Professor Adamson says (Enc. Brit., Vol. IV, p. 7): "Bolingbroke's philosophical writings are indeed insufferably wearisome, and it is only in them that his style ever flags and grows cumbersome, for his other writings are in many respects the perfection of English prose style, and can stand comparison even with the finished com-

positions of Addison." This reminds me that I may well direct attention also to what Mr. Gosse says of the characters and styles of Addison and Steele, without taking time to say more than that we might spare the word "meticulous" (p. 194), which Webster's "Unabridged" pronounces obsolete, and which is not found in dictionaries of lesser capacity. I sympathize too with what he says of Collins and Gray, especially with his remark (p. 235): "It may perhaps be allowed to be an almost infallible criterion of a man's taste for the highest forms of poetic art to inquire whether he has or has not a genuine love for the verses of William Collins." This parallel also seems to me well drawn: "While Gray was the greater intellectual figure of the two, the more significant as a man and a writer, Collins possessed something more thrilling, more spontaneous, as a purely lyrical poet." This agrees, leniori modo, with what Mr. Swinburne has said, with his usual extravagance (Ward's English Poets, Vol. III, p. 279): "As an elegiac poet Gray holds for all ages to come his unassailable and sovereign station; as a lyric poet, he is simply unworthy to sit at the feet of Collins."

Mr. Gosse's treatment of Johnson, Goldsmith, Gibbon and Burke will well repay perusal. We could wish the mere mention of many of the minor writers, nominis parvi umbrae, absent, and the space given to a fuller treatment of some others who are too briefly passed over, as Sheridan, for example. But we shall not quarrel with the author for this: we are grateful for what we have. As a history of literature Mr. Gosse's book seems to include what is wanted in a better manner than Mr. Saintsbury's, but both are valuable additions to the subject and must take their place among the best we have. It is to be hoped that the remaining volumes will speedily appear and will cover their ground equally as well as these, although it may be suggested to Professor Dowden not to try to do too much. In the modern period especially, many names may be relegated to a dictionary of authors that do not deserve a place in a history of literature. What is wanted, and what Professor Dowden is well qualified to give us, judging from his work in Shaksperian criticism, is a compendious statement of the principles of literary criticism, for now we search for it in vain. Each critic seems to be a law unto himself and to follow his own sweet will. JAMES M. GARNETT.

Introduction to Our Early English Literature (from the earliest times to the Norman Conquest). By W. CLARKE ROBINSON, M. A., Ph. D. Heidelberg University; Graduate of the University of France; Lecturer in Modern Literature and Languages in the University of Durham. London, Durham, and Heidelberg, 1885.

Although published five years ago this little book seems unknown on this side of the water. Meantime Professor Robinson has transferred his labors to this country and is a professor in Kenyon College, Ohio. The work consists of an introduction giving "an historical sketch of the Teutonic tribes and settlements in Europe, and of their earliest literature," followed by a brief synopsis of Anglo-Saxon grammar and some remarks on versification. The bulk of the work comprises short extracts, with literary notices and translations, of each poem in Anglo-Saxon literature, so that "Early English" here

means Anglo-Saxon. The extracts are taken from Grein, a few from Grein-Wülker, and the translations are made by the author. The book thus serves as a useful compendium for the young student who desires some knowledge of Anglo-Saxon poetry, for only a list of the prose writings is given in an appendix. A general criticism on this plan may be made that more space is given to the minor than to the greater and more important poems, to The Wanderer or The Seafarer, for example, than to the Béwulf.

The author puts together the so-called poems of Caedmon "under the headship of Caedmon, at least for the sake of classification," and says: "Of these poems there is little doubt that the Genesis, for the greater part, is the real work of Caedmon." He also ascribes to Cynewulf not only the acknowledged, but the contested, poems, and to these adds The Wanderer and The Seafarer, and says (p. 97): "It is not at all improbable that Cynewulf may have written them in his earlier poetic life." He remarks in his preface: "In the disputed question of Cynewulf I have followed Prof. ten Brink's view; but perhaps Prof. Wülker is correct in identifying him with the 10th Bishop of Lindisfarne." Now Wülker has expressly asserted that Cynewulf was probably a West-Saxon, not a Northumbrian, and not the Bishop of Lindisfarne (Anglia, I 483 ff., and Grundriss, p. 158).

Professor Robinson seems to me inconsistent in respect to the Runic Lines on the Cross at Ruthwell, which he ascribes to Caedmon (p. 29), and The Dream of the Cross, which he ascribes to Cynewulf (p. 69). The former are but a Northumbrian version of certain lines of the latter, doubtless the original (of which the West-Saxon poem is the version), but both by the same author. Moreover, the fact that the cross has the words engraven on the top in Runic letters, "Cadmon ma fauapo," need not imply that Caedmon wrote the poem, but only that a sculptor of that name made the stone cross, as has already been suggested. Professor Robinson does, indeed, say (p. 69): "It is possible, however, that Cynewulf is the real author both of this poem and of the inscriptions at Ruthwell, and that the sculptor, or his employers, mistakenly attributed the lines to the first and better known poet, and engraved on the stone the name of Caedmon instead of Cynewulf." The assumption of a mistake is gratuitous, and the possibility is rather a strong probability, for I confess to an agreement with ten Brink vs. Wülker in respect to the Northumbrian origin of Cynewulf and his authorship of the Dream of the Cross, as has already been stated in the introduction to my translation of the Elene (cf. Kennedy's translation of ten Brink's " Early English Literature," p. 388).

It would prolong this notice to too great length to examine the translations of the several extracts which Professor Robinson gives as specimens. Taking at random The Fight at Finnsburg, I wish Prof. R. had given the "reason to suppose the Hengest of this poem was the same who first led the Jutes to battle for the soil of Britain in the year 449 A. D." He omits mention of Hnaef, who first led the Danes, on whose fall Hengest assumed command. It might also have been stated that we are now entirely dependent on Hickes's transcription for the text of this poem, as the leaf from which he transcribed it has been lost. The text here is taken from Heyne's fourth ed. of Béowulf (1879), but a better text will be found in Heyne's fifth ed., by Socin (1888), which is nearer to Grein-Wülker (1881). Socin still writes fêr for hêr (line 5), but changes

hebba's back to habba's (line 10), and handa to linda. The translation in my Béwulf (pp. 97, 98) was made from the text in the separate edition of Grein (1867), who made several important emendations, hence some of the differences. I cannot concur with some of Prof. R.'s renderings, and especially with his translation of gylle's graghama, "the cricket chirps." The vocabulary of this poem was omitted in the glossary of even Heyne's fourth ed., but Socin has inserted these words and followed Grein in rendering, die Rüstung klirrt. hornäs (line 1) should be hornas.

Not having tested the renderings of the other pieces (except to observe that the rendering of the short extract from *Béowulf* is very "free," and that the text has aldor-ledse (line 15) and the translation aldor-ceare (the alternative reading), I cannot speak as to their correctness. A revision would, perhaps, not come amiss. I cannot lay down the book, however, without thanking Professor R. for having made it by honest work, and expressing the hope that it may become better known to students.

JAMES M. GARNETT.

### REPORTS.

HERMES, 1888.

III.

J. Toepfer (Göttingen). Die Attischen Pythaisten und Deliasten. This is an antiquarian article in which are gathered up the various notices bearing on the  $\theta\epsilon\omega\rhooi$  to Delphi and to Delos and the worship of the Delian Apollo, introduced by way of the eastern coast of Attica, notices found in the Atticist lexica chiefly, and in Strabo and Pausanias. To this is joined some rather fervid and sanguine archaeological interpretation. It would be a hopeless task to endeavor to report the gist of an article which is ill-sifted and absolutely lacking in unity and perspicuity.

Th. Thalheim. The suit brought by Androcles (private speech of Demosth.) against Lakritos, and a consideration of the documents contained in it. Th. does not share the radical view which rejects all documents found in the Attic orators as spurious. The στίχοι, it is true, were not counted for documents in the old MS from which these data were compiled, but the documents were, e. g. in the copy to which Harpocration (Μένδη, σύλας, διοπεύων) refers.—In discussing the legal aspects of the case itself, Th. holds that both Artemon and Apollodorus were brothers of the defendant Lakritos, and suggests an explanation why the speaker kept Apollodorus so much in the background. In this matter he dissents from Blass. The affidavits indeed seem more pertinent as against Apollodorus than as against Lakritos. Thalheim says on this point, p. 338, that the speaker intended at one time to bring suit against Apollodorus and collected the affidavits against the latter, but when Ap. had escaped from the charge by leaving the city, the speaker turned against Lakritos these very affidavits, which had the same force against Artemon and the latter's so-called heir Lakritos as they had against Apollodorus. In his further analysis Th. opposes the view that the contract and affidavits were foisted into the speech by a later grammarian.

B. Keil. Epikritische Isocrates-studien. 1. K. re-edits a papyrus fragment of Isocrates now preserved in the Musée Borely, near Marseilles, probably of the fourth century A. D. with strong traces of iotacism. (Inf. -iv for eiv.) <sup>1</sup> Those readings of the MS which are new are devoid of value. 2. Discussion of ethical terms ἀνδρεία ἀρετή and the gradual development of the latter into generic valuation; Homer, Hesiod, lyrical poets, Socrates and his school, where the four cardinal virtues were systematized. Keil even suggests that there is an allusion to Socrates' ethics in Aristoph. Avv. 1537 sqq.<sup>2</sup> The Socratic school certainly elaborated not only the best state but also the ideal

1 See A. J. P. VI 397; VIII 111.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Possibly. That Aristophanes makes fun of a specific theory at all seems rather farfetched.—E. G. S.

of a prince, as Xenophon did in his presentation of the elder Cyrus. This scheme of Socratic classification of virtue and virtues is evidently accepted by Isocrates, e. g. ad Nicoclem, where heavy interpolations are claimed by Keil, whereas, to his mind, the genuine portions show the outline and skeleton of the genuine elements of the oration following the four cardinal virtues. Many of those exhortations and precepts which are considered spurious by Keil are placed in parallel column with kindred or fairly similar passages from Aristotle, Ethica Nicom. "Man wird nicht bestreiten dass die Stellen der beiden Columnen in einem gegenseitigen Abhängigkeitsverhältniss zu einander stehen." [The present abstractor doubts this very much indeed; it is one of those fatal substitutions of must for may which vitiate so much of German scholarship.] Keil's valuation of Isocrates, pp. 372 sq., is very readable and suggestive.

U. Köhler. Hermokopiden inschriften. Fragments of Inss. dealing with the confiscation of the property of the men involved in the famous state-trial of 415 B. C. Köhler's exposition proceeds calmly and thoroughly, a flood of light being thrown, e. g. on No. 3 (dealing with the sale of the bedroom furniture of Alcibiades) from Pollux Onomasticon X 32 sqq. Pollux often quotes δημόπρατα, lists of confiscations. These Köhler assigns to Krateros συναγωγή ψηφισμάτων.

A. Busse. The historian and the philosopher Dexippus. The historian lived at Athens about 273 A. D. Of the philosopher we have a commentary on the categories of Aristotle, where he cites Iamblichus, whose pupil by-the-by he was. He died probably about 353. Eunapius has been blamed as confounding the two.

B. Niese. Das sogenannte Licinisch-Sextische Ackergesetz. Tiberius Gracchus is said to have tried to enforce or restore the efficacy of the agrarian law of Licinius and Sextius of 367 B. C. We must distinguish, however, between the version of Plutarch and Appian, on the one side, and the Livian annalistic account on the other. The sources of the former are, on the whole, older and better. The situation of Roman society, economically considered, in 367 differed vastly from the same in 146 or 133. In 367 the ager publicus was too insignificant in extent to warrant stipulations such as that which fixed the maximum of possession at 500 jugera. It may be instructive to note the various important conquests:

396 sqq. Volscian and Veientians made into tribes.

340. Latins and Campanians (after 340) made into tribes.

313. The dictator Fabius distributed lands to soldiers (Diodorus 19, 101).

306. Hernican land sold outright.

304. Some land of the Aequi made into two new tribes and two colonies.

290. End of Samnite wars. Much land left as ager publicus by Dentatus, of which land much probably was assigned in 241, when the tribes Quirina and Velina were made.

285. Senonian conquest, parcelled out to Roman citizens in 233.

Niese proposes in consideration of all this to eliminate the agrarian part from the laws of 367, which agrarian law indeed cannot have been passed until a considerable time after the consummation of the conquest of Italy. Cicero, de lege Agraria, does not mention Stolo and Sextius. Polybius (II 21, 8) estimates the division of the Ager Gallicus by Flaminius in 233 as the inception of an evil and sinister political development (ἀρχηγὸν μὲν γενέσθαι τῆς ἐπὶ τὸ χεῖρον διαστροφῆς). The "Licinian" limitation indeed seems to have been of later origin than the distribution of 233. It was in force in the time of the elder Cato, who cites it (Gellius VI 3) about 167. The limitation was established probably about 180 B. C. Like Mommsen, Niese rejects as a spurious tradition (or projection from later conditions backward) the "agrarian law" of Sp. Cassius as well as the other kindred laws of the earlier republic. Niese goes so far as to suggest, by way of inference, that even the other much more famous law of Licinius and Sextius concerning the access of plebeians to the consulate is tainted with suspicion [an inference which impresses the present writer as a doubtful one].

Robert. "Olympische Glossen." Comments and elucidation of problems concerning Olympia, topographical and archaeological, largely on Pausanias's reports: 1. Tropaion of the Elians, commemorating a victory over Sparta.

2. The Agora. 3. The inscriptions on the chest of Kypselos. 4. Pantarkes, an Olympian victor, VI 10, 6.

A. Wilhelm. Zur Geschichte der Attischen Kleruchen auf Lemnos. Inss. found in 1887 on the Acropolis, with which he combines one found in 1877. Contents, a motion to commend officially Komeas, who had been cavalry commander in the Attic colony of Lemnos, himself Athenian born, of deme Lamptrae. Also a decree of the Attic colony itself concerning Komeas. The inscriptions are of the earlier part of the third century, when the Athenians and their Cleruchi in the colony favored king Seleucus as against king Lysimachus.

U. Wilcken. Notes on [the original character of] the Berlin fragment (Fayum papyrus) of Aristotle's 'Αθηναίων πολιτεία.

Ad. Busse. Critical notes on Aristotle, de Anima III 11, p. 434a, 12-15 (Bekker).

IV.

O. Kern. Theogoniae Orphicae fragmenta nova, edited. These are found in a Venice MS of Damascius, last leader of the Neoplatonic school at Athens, which he lest in consequence of Justinian's edict in 527 A. D.

H. Bürger, in Zu Apuleius, discusses the question whether the introduction to the *Metamorphoses* of Apuleius is partly autobiographical, as E. Rohde (Rhein. Mus. 40) holds, of Apuleius himself. B. argues that all the introduction is intended to produce the effect that the narrator and the author are one, viz. the Lucius of Corinth whose character Apuleius has assumed.

K. Bürger. Critical notes on the Pseudo-Lucianic 'Ovog. B. holds that this novel in its present form is an abstract from a larger original work, and that a good portion of the textual difficulties is due to that fact. Bürger's modus operandi is to parallel the narrative in Lucian with that in Apuleius, and to draw his conclusions, e. g.,

C. I. καὶ ἀλῶν ἐκοινωνοῦμεν καὶ οῦτως έκείνην την άργαλέαν δόδυ άνύσαντες prolixam viam sine labore ac taedio πλησίον ήδη τής πόλεως ήμεν.

Apul. I 20, Asperam denique ac evasi.

Bürger demands an equivalent on the Greek side for sine labore ac taedio, but such criticism is too schoolmasterly and can hardly be called cogent.

Rothstein on the Dirae and the Lydia in the body of Vergil's works. Scaliger assigned them to Valerius Cato, and Ribbeck, in his recent charming work on the history of Roman poetry, reiterates that view. Jacobs and Naeke differed from Scaliger in this only, that they claimed the necessity of establishing two distinct pieces, Dirae and Lydia. Rothstein insists that the two pieces are so unlike each other that a different author must be assumed for each; the Lydia, bearing strong marks of youthfulness on the part of the author, uses the common apparatus of amatory poesy, whereas the Dirae carry the impress of personal and individual concern. After a detailed analysis Rothstein sums up as follows, p. 524: Quamquam igitur neque Vergilii sunt neque Latinae sirenis tamen neutrum indignum est philologorum opera quia alterum exemplo esse potest qua in versibus componendis facultate Augustea aetate vel mediocris ingenii homines uterentur, alterum conscriptum est ab egregio poeta, qui non ultimum inter Romana ingenia locum obtinet.1

A. Krause. Miscellen zur Geschichte Alexanders. The battle of Gaugamela took place, not on Oct. 1, 331 (old style), but on Sep. 30, 331 (bibliographical detail valuable). There were no phalangites in Alexander's army but Macedonians.

G. Kaibel. Inscriptions of Pisidia. Notes and reports on Dr. Sterrett's epigraphic tour, undertaken at the cost of the late Miss Catharine Wolfe, of New York (Am. School at Athens, 1888, Boston). Kaibel estimates the value of this collection in the handsomest terms. "The fine volume contains 651 inscriptions, not all of equal value, of course, but hardly one that does not give desirable information about history or topography, about public or private life, about religion or language; moreover, all of them were copied by Dr. Sterrett with great care, partly revised after squeezes." A large inscription of Anabura, Pisidia, gives the precepts of a dice oracle; particular divinities favor certain throws; amongst the divinities being Κρόνος τεκνοφάγος and Βλάβη. The dice oracle rules were evidently presented for public use by Antiochus and Bianor, members of a distinguished family. The visitor needed merely his own dice. Some inscriptions on a rock on the bank of the Kodja are permeated by Stoic sentiment and are marked by elevation and dignity of literary form.

Van Herwerden (Utrecht). "Ad Diodorum Siculum." Textual criticism à propos of the recent edition of D. by Vogel, 1888. Elimination of a word often indeed makes the sense clearer and more terse, but authors do not always cast their expression into the tersest and grammatically most perfect form. On the other hand, the careful notation of habit, i. e. grammar, is often effectively applied to preserve readings, e. g. I 81, & ç å v, which Diodorus uses freely as an equivalent to are. (On the whole, the negative canon of H. is fairly contained in a phrase used p. 550, on III 4, 3: "locum sic scriptum interpretari

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Robinson Ellis in the last number of A. J. P.

nequeo.") The MS reads (in the discussion of the function of hieroglyphic symbols):  $\delta$  δὲ ὁφθαλμὸς (ἐστε understood from preceding sentence) δίκης τηρητής καὶ παντὸς τοῦ σώματος φύλαξ. H. suggests inserting after δίκης < καὶ φυλακῆς, τῶν πάντων (δυτων?) ῶν > τηρητής κτέ. I would certainly ask for a commentary by the author of the emendation before I could understand the passage thus emended. Perhaps instead of "locum sic scriptum interpretari nequeo" a more cogent canon would be: Nemo locum sic scriptum interpretari potest.

M. Wellmann. Zur Geschichte der Medicin im Alterthum.

K. P. Schulze. Der Codex M des Catull. The MS G has been highly valued, as it permits one to make inferences as to the archetypus. Baehrens was wrong, however, in saying that with the exception of O all extant MSS of Catullus are derived from G. Similar qualities may be ascribed to a Venice MS of Catullus, M, recently collated by Ellis. In this MS too the peculiarity of double readings is notable.

U. Wilcken. Kaiserliche Tempelverwaltung in Aegypten. Notes from some paypri now in the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris, letters which passed in ordinary routine of business between imperial officials in the fifth year of Septimius Severus (= 197 A. D.) The subject-matter of one of the letters is of more than passing interest. The procurator Augusti and διαδεχόμενος τὴν ἀρχιερωσίνην directs the tabularius of the Jupiter Capitolinus temple at Arsinoë to take the following action: There are vacant two positions, of στολισταί (keepers of the divine wardrobe). Two candidates have made application and have offered a certain sum. The tabularius is directed to have the positions put up at auction. διαδεχόμενος τὴν ἀρχ. is something like deputy pontifex. Another letter directs that the people shall keep their swine away from the temple of Talmis.

Spiro on σύμπτυκτοι ἀνάπαιστοι (Pherecrates Comicus in Kock I, p. 166.)

E. Maas. Mythische Kurznamen. Pet names or abbreviations of a kindred effect (ὑποκορισμός). Alkimos for Alkimedon in Iliad 24, 574, Melas for Melanthos, Demo for Demophile, Adon for Adonis, Ampyx for Ampykos, Askles for Asklepios, Aster for Asterios, Aphro for Aphrodite, Glauke for Glaukopis, etc.

E. G. SIHLER.

PHILOLOGUS, XLVII. Heft 3.

#### I .- TREATISES.

XX. Pp. 385-399. Babriana, by Th. Bergk. Discussion of two attempts to restore the original form of some of the Babrian fables from the prose paraphrase of Aesop, viz. the Codex Vind. and the Codex Athous. This latter sylloge was evidently in the hands of the maker of the former. The Athoan diasceuast was clearly not Menas, though the sylloge was everywhere interpolated by him. Moreover, the Codex Athous, so far as it contains fables in common with the Codex Vat., by no means yields in value to this, but equals or excels it.

P. 399. In Avianus XXVIII 7, Vana laboratis aufer mendacia dictis, Nettleship suggests that laboratis might mean "fabricated," "unreal," while R. Ellis, in his late edition (see A. J. P. IX, p. 359) emends by suggesting vaporatis. Crusius defends the interpretation of Nettleship by quoting Babrius 95, 36: δ νοῦς ἐχαννώθη λόγοισιν ποιητοΐσιν.

XXI. Pp. 400-425. On Heraclitus (4), by Christian Cron (continued from Heft 2).

P. 425. Apuleius Apol. c. 83. M. Petschenig proposes to read πορίσαι · νῦν δὲ ὡς βάσκανοι ἡμῶν κακοήθεις τε,

XXII. Pp. 426–433. Critical and exegetical notes on Demosthenes de Corona, by W. Schmid. §2. The reading  $\dot{a}\lambda\lambda\dot{a}$   $\dot{\tau}\dot{o}$  kaì  $\dot{\tau}\ddot{\eta}$   $\dot{\tau}\dot{a}\dot{\xi}\epsilon\iota$  kaì  $\dot{\tau}\ddot{\eta}$   $\dot{a}\pi\sigma\lambda\sigma\rho\dot{\rho}\iota$  is defended against Lipsius's  $\dot{a}\lambda\lambda\dot{a}$  kaì  $\dot{\tau}\dot{o}$ . §12.  $\dot{\eta}$   $\pi\rho\sigmaa\iota\rho\epsilon\sigma\iota$   $\dot{a}\dot{\nu}\dot{\tau}\dot{\eta}$   $\dot{\epsilon}\chi\theta\rho\sigma\ddot{\nu}$ ; necessary on rhetorical and logical grounds to place a comma before  $\dot{\epsilon}\chi\theta\rho\sigma\ddot{\nu}$ , and consequently to write both  $a\dot{\nu}\tau\eta$  and  $a\dot{\nu}\tau\dot{\eta}$ , between which the MSS vary:  $\dot{\eta}$   $\pi\rho\sigmaa\iota\rho\epsilon\sigma\iota$   $\dot{\alpha}\dot{\nu}\dot{\tau}\dot{\eta}$ . It follows hence that  $\gamma\dot{a}\rho$  in §13 is the right reading, but  $\delta\epsilon\ddot{\iota}$  (wanting in  $\Sigma$ ) is the substitute for some verb lost from the archetype. No conjecture is offered as to what this verb was. §18 fin. For  $\pi\alpha\rho\dot{\alpha}$   $\tau\dot{\sigma}\dot{\nu}$  write  $\pi\alpha\rho'$   $a\dot{\nu}\tau\dot{\sigma}\dot{\nu}$ . §19. The evidence favors  $\gamma\dot{\epsilon}\nu\eta\tau\alpha\iota$ , not  $\gamma\dot{\epsilon}\nu\nu\iota\dot{\tau}\sigma$ . §22.  $\nu\nu\dot{\nu}\dot{\iota}$   $\delta\iota\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\tau}\dot{\epsilon}\iota\dot{\epsilon}$  and  $\nu\dot{\nu}\nu$  kat $\eta\gamma\rho\rho\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\iota}$  are to be read. The rule of the Byzantine grammarians was  $\nu\dot{\nu}\nu$  with all tenses,  $\nu\nu\dot{\nu}\dot{\iota}$  only with the present. Attic usage does not sustain the rule, but it is natural that the grammarians should correct according to their canon. §25.  $\tau\epsilon$   $\tau\dot{\eta}\nu$   $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\iota}\dot{\rho}\dot{\nu}\nu\eta\nu$  is a gloss of  $\pi\dot{\alpha}\nu\tau a$ , which got even into the prima manus of  $\Sigma$ . §28.  $\tau\dot{\alpha}$   $\mu\iota\kappa\rho\dot{\alpha}$   $\sigma\nu\mu\phi\dot{\epsilon}\rho\sigma\nu\tau a$   $\tau\ddot{\eta}\varsigma$   $\pi\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\epsilon\omega\varsigma$  defended against Usener's clever conjecture  $\tau\dot{\alpha}$   $\kappa\dot{\epsilon}\rho\mu\alpha\tau a$ .

P. 433. Emendationum ad Aristidem specimen II. W. Schmid offers in Or. XLV eight conjectures; in Or. XLVI five.

XXIII. Pp. 434-448. Date and author of Ps.-Apuleius, De orthographia, by O. Crusius. This is an interesting contribution to the history of plagiarisms. The spuriousness of the fragments of this so-called L. Caecilius Minutianus Apuleius was shown by Madvig (Opusc. Acad. I, p. 1 ff.), and, in spite of Osann's protest, has been generally accepted. Crusius now seeks by a more careful investigation to determine the date and author of the composition. By close and careful reasoning, which we cannot here follow, he renders it very probable that the Ps.-Apuleius was Ludovicus Caelius Rhodiginus, a contemporary of Erasmus, and whom Erasmus accused of plagiarism in a work which he wrote entitled Antiquae Lectiones. This work shows the same hand as the Fragmenta de orthographia, and is the first work that cites these fragments. Crusius has certainly made out a strong case against the learned professor, who seems to have enjoyed an enviable reputation in his day, for soon after his death Erasmus writes of him: Narrant enim . . . fuisse virum integritatis christianae nullo studiorum labore fatigabilem.

P. 448. A few remarks by Crusius on the sources of Apuleius's Metamorphoses.

XXIV. Pp. 449-486. The ten Eponymi and the order of succession of the Attic Phylae, by A. Mommsen. The order of succession of the φυλαί was determined for some purposes by lot, and lasted for a definite period, e. g. one year; for other purposes another order, not subject to the lot, prevailed, which

may be called the sacred order, viz. Erechtheis, Aegeis, Pandionis, Leontis, Akamantis, Oeneis, Kekropis, Hippothontis, Aeantis, Antiochis. This sacred order of the φυλαί was established by Cleisthenes, and obtained even in the days of the Roman emperors. As to the cause of the adoption of just these Eponymi we are not to take the standpoint of the period of the Epigoni (Pollux, who says that Apollo selected the older heroes), but that of the sixth century B. C., namely, that those heroes were preferred who were then especially worshipped or seemed to Cleisthenes especially worthy of honor. It seems that Cleisthenes, arranging the year according to tenths, gave each of these to an especial hero, Erechtheus, Aegeus, etc. "It is at least not an accident that the first Eponymus points to a festival of the first tenth, the second to one of the second tenth, and so for the third, sixth, seventh and ninth eponymi religious relations to the corresponding tenths obtain. Those heroes for whom no such relation can be shown to have obtained-Leos, Akamas; Hippothon, Antiochus-are the less known, and we may believe that, if tradition were more complete, also for these such relations would not be wanting. Cleisthenes then so arranged the matter of the Eponymi that the heroes numbered after the sacred order accorded with the traditional usages of the tenths of the year assigned to them."

XXV. Pp. 487-514. The Hastiferi of the Castellum Mattiacorum, by H. C. Maué. The hastiferi of Castel (civitas Mattiacorum) have long been known from a dedicatory inscription in honor of Virtus Bellona, of the year 236 A.D. Since the discovery of this inscription in 1809 two views have been current as to the nature of these hastiferi, some taking them to be a kind of municipal militia, others regarding them as a sacred college. The first view is that of Mommsen and Marquardt, the second is that of our author, who finds his opinion strikingly confirmed by an inscription on a sandstone altar found two years ago on the bank of the Rhine, bearing the date March 24, 224 A. D. This inscription has the peculiar value of being the first which gives with plainness the oldest Roman name of Castel. These hastiferi took part in the worship of Bellona, which, though of oriental origin, was widespread, especially along the Rhine districts. They consisted of shepherds, for these were accustomed to carry the spear to protect their flocks from beasts of prey and robbers. The detailed proof of the article is wrought out with much care and the polemic against Mommsen's view is convincing.

XXVI. Pp. 514-551. Late works on the dress and equipment of the Roman army in time of the empire, by A. Müller. This article forms a continuation of a similar one in Vol. 33, pp. 632-685, and examines quite a number of recent and valuable works, as Marquardt, Röm. Staatsverwaltung, Band II, 2te Aufl. 1884; Max Jahn's Handbuch einer Gesch. d. Kriegswesen v. d. Urzeit bis zur Renaissance, 1880; Lindenschmit, Tracht u. Bewaffnung d. röm. Heeres während d. Kaiserzeit, 1882. Besides these a number of works on special technical points, articles in journals, etc., are cited. Within the last fifteen years more attention has been paid to inscriptions and monuments, and from these we get often most accurate information. Roman art was realistic and its remains can generally be relied upon. Lindenschmit's work is discussed at considerable length. In plan it is somewhat faulty, as it aims to com-

bine the scientific with the didactic method, that is, to mark an advance in its investigations and be at the same time suited for school use. Some of the illustrations have been faultily restored and are therefore not reliable. Comments on the various parts of Roman armor and weapons follow, as galea, cassis, lorica, gladius, pilum, hasta, etc. On the whole he considers Lindenschmit's work a good one and will welcome a new edition.

P. 551. Wagener pleads for C. W. F. Muller's reading, Cic. pro Lig., ante hanc diem, in spite of the uniform MSS reading hunc.

#### II.-MISCELLANEOUS.

- 18. Pp. 552-554. On the Cypria. R. Peppmüller discusses the first fragment in connexion with the new material offered by Ludwich, Rh. Mus. 1887, p. 472 f.
- 19. P. 554. Observations on the MS (Cod. Marc. 211) of Porphyrius De antro Nympharum, by Erich Bethe.
- 20. Pp. 555-558. Aemilii Macri Theriacon fragmenta duo, by Rob. Unger. The first one is contained in the Lucani commenta Bern. VI 488, and was attributed to Aemilius Macer by Usener. Unger taking his cue from Verg. Aen. VI 419, emends as follows: Offa < s > cit aene < as > va < let extendiss > e colubras; Offa (scit Aeneas) valet extendisse colubras.
- 21. Pp. 562-568. Contributions to the history of Roman prose writers in the Middle Ages, by M. Manitius. (1) Solinus. That this author was well known is attested both by the number of MSS extant and also by the frequent allusions to his writings in the writers of the Middle Ages. To those quoted in Mommsen's edition quite a number are here added. (2) Tacitus. The extent to which Tacitus was known in the Middle Ages is hard to determine, nor has the matter been very much cleared up by Cornelius. A few new notices are brought forward. (3) Pliny the Younger. The classic epistolary writers were supplanted in the Middle Ages by the letters of the Fathers, yet Pliny seems to have been much read in the fifth century and was known in the tenth and twelfth centuries. (4) Cornelius Nepos. There are but few MSS and but few notices of him in writers of the Middle Ages.
- 23. P. 568. Mähly suggests for omen the derivation from avis; \*avimen > \*aumen > omen.
- 24. Pp. 569-573. Flaviana. Under this title Chambalu contributes five notes on points of history under the Flavian Emperors. In one of these he argues from inscriptions on coins that the expedition of Domitian against the Chatti was before Sept. of the year 83, and not, as Imhof assumes, in 84.
- 25. Pp. 573-574. Scaenica. W. Schmid argues against the statement of Suidas (s. v. Pratinas) that in consequence of the collapse of the wooden theatre at Athens during a contest between Aeschylus, Choerilus, and Pratinas a new stone theatre was built. The collapse may have been a fact, but the probability is that the new stone theatre was begun not long before the time of Lycurgus (say under Eubulus), and completed by Lycurgus (Plut. Lycurg. 10).
- P. 576. Reports of Journals: Revue Archaeol. 1888, Nos. 3, 4.—Mnemosyne, 1887, XV 4; 1888, XVI 1.—Academy, 1888, May 26, June 2, 9, 30.

Heft 4.

#### I.—TREATISES.

XXVII. Pp. 578-588. Observations concerning some libraries of Sicily, by Fr. Rühl. The information we possess concerning these little known libraries antedates mainly the losses by war and theft in the last decades of Bourbon rule. On the other hand, late guide-books call attention to considerable collections of MSS in various places, thereby misleading scholars with the hope of finding something of especial value, who discover that their finds are by no means in proportion to the outlay of time and trouble. Rühl gives the result of his recent investigations in several libraries, viz. the University Library at Messina, University Library at Catania, Library of S. Nicola at Catania, Bibliotheca Arcivescovile at Syracuse, Bibliotheca Nazionale at Palermo.

XXVIII. Pp. 589-598. Pindar's Sixth Olympic Ode, by L. Bornemann. Critical and exegetical comments.

P. 598. On Tyrtaeus and Sappho, by Haeberlin. For Tyrt. Frg. 11, 37 (Bergk) he proposes: ἀντῆι for ἐς αὐτούς; Sappho frg. 1 (Bergk) he would read, ἐλθε μοι καὶ νῦν, χαλέπαν δὲ λῦσον | ἐκ μερίμναν, ὁσσα δέ μοι τέλεσσαι | θῦμος ἰμέρρει, σὸ τέλεσσον αὕτα | σύμμαχος ἔσσα.

XXIX. Pp. 599-616. On Heraclitus, by Christian Cron. Continued from Heft 3.

XXX. Pp. 617-622. Apophthegmata Laconica, by M. Treu. The editions of the Apophthegmata are based for the most part on one tradition, the Corpus Planudeum. There is another varying considerably from that, the MSS of which group have been little used in establishing the text, though they offer a fuller and sometimes a better text than the Corpus Planudeum. M. Treu gives a selection from the passages that show considerable variation from the ordinary text, as well as those apophthegmata that are not found at all in the editions.

P. 622. M. Treu gives two extracts from the Codex Pal. Graecus 129 Heidelbergensis which he has not met anywhere else.

XXXI. Pp. 623-635. Composition of Petronius's satires, by E. Klebs. From a number of passages it is clear that Encolpius stands in a peculiar relation to the worship of Priapus. One of the most striking of these is the prayer to this deity at the opening of ch. XVI, which Klebs examines at length, reaching the conclusion that it was uttered in consequence of some special crime against the god, such as the pollution of his temple. This anger of Priapus bears the same relation to the adventures of Encolpius as that of Poseidon to the fate of Odysseus, and serves as a central motive around which is grouped the most realistic description of antiquity.

P. 635. Eussner emends Livy VII 2, 4 by substituting for ceterum parva quoque, ceterum parva haec quoque, and VII 30, II homines ipsi in hanc necessitatem venerunt instead of omnes ipsi, etc.

XXXII. Pp. 636-643. Comparison of the statements of Pliny and Mela in regard to the tribes of central Africa, by E. Schweder. The writer of this

article finds between the statements of Pliny and Mela agreement sufficient to show that both writers drew from a common source, but at the same time there are decided differences which show that by one of these writers the statements of his authority were not rightly understood. By a careful examination Schweder shows that Pliny has preserved the statements in correct form, while Mela has simply misunderstood many of them.

P. 643. Th. Stanglemends two passages of Justinus, proposing divinitatis for dignitatis in II 9, 15, and tergeri for deleri in 37, 3, 7.

XXXIII. Pp. 644-652. The heroic deed of Aristophon, by G. F. Unger. According to Demosthenes, Lept. 148, Aristophon was granted the ἀτέλεια. The ground for this unusual honor Unger thinks is to be found in a corrupt passage of Theophrastus, Charact. 7: προσδιηγήσασθαι καὶ τὴν ἐπ' Αριστοφῶντός ποτε γενομένην τοῦ βήτορος μάχην καὶ τὴν Λακεδαιμονίοις ὑπὸ Λυσάνδρου. Here ἐπ' 'Αριστοφώντος is not a date, but = duce Aristophonte (cf. Thuc. VI 6, 2, την γενομένην έπὶ Λάχητος ξυμμαχίαν; Xen. Hipparch. I, 12, ην έπὶ σοῦ ἀναβῶσιν; Dem. Ol. 2, 14, ἐπὶ Τιμοθέου). In the second clause ἐπὶ Αυσάνδρου is the read ing of all the MSS except two, and must be restored. It is easy to see, now, how kal got into the text: a copyist or reader was led by the double occurrence of the apparent date ἐπί τινος to suppose that two battles were meant, which of course had to be connected by Kal. But one battle, not two, is referred to, and the passage must read: την έπ' 'Αριστοφωντός ποτε γενομένην του ρήτορος μάχην την Λακεδαιμονίοις έπι Λυσάνδρου. The deed referred to Unger thinks to be found probably in Xenophon Hell. II 4, 31 ff., and the leader in the brilliant feat of arms there described, Aristophon, strategus 363-2 B. C., a man of tireless energy and a fiery orator even in his latest years.

P. 652. In Dinarchus c. Dem. 28, E. Sihler (of New York) proposes to bracket the second οὖτος as διττογραφία.

XXXIV. Pp. 653-677. History of the legio XIV gemina, by Metellus Meyer. The history of the Roman legions, important as it is for the history of the empire, has never received proper and systematic treatment. As a contribution to this end we have here a very full and valuable account of the legio XIV gemina in three sections: first, origin, name, and insignia; second, the places where it was stationed at different times, and the length of time it remained in each place; third, its deeds and fate from Augustus to Diocletian.

P. 677. H. Deiter emends Caesar B. G. VII 47, 1; Cic. De div. I 9, 15; and Or. 7, 23.

XXXV. Pp. 678-702. Apollo Citharoedus, by Otto A. Hoffmann. The author thinks that this statue is a copy of the famous statue of Apollo by Scopas that was procured by Augustus for his temple on the Palatine. This he argues at length from the coins, especially those of the time of Nero, and the descriptions of the Augustan poets.

P. 702. J. Mähly emends Porphyrio's note on Hor. Sat. I 6, 30.

XXXVI. Pp. 703-709. The so-called Pharmacides of the Cypselus chest. W. H. Roscher agrees with O. Kern (Jahr. d. Arch. Inst. III, p. 234 ff.) that these latter are very closely connected with the remaining mythic-allegorical figures of

the representation; that thus the absence of a superscription is to be explained, and that in this relation the proper interpretation is to be sought. But he disagrees with Kern's explanation of the Pharmacides as Adrasteia and Eide, arguing with much force and probability that "the two figures in question are two moirae, who, conceived as pharmacides, prepare in their mortars for mortals weal and woe." He shows in proof, (1) that the mortar-pestle was an attribute of the moirae (Apollod. I 6, 2); (2) from Pausan. X 24, 4, etc., that there is no objection to be made on the score of dual moirae; (3) the close relation of the moirae with Nyx and the other allegorical figures of the representation.

XXXVII. Pp. 710-720. Contributions to the history of Roman poets in the Middle Ages, by Manitius. This article is a continuation of the same subject treated in Heft 3, but rather more pretentious than the notes there given on the prose writers. The author proposes in a series of articles to discuss the allusions to the Roman poets, exclusive of Vergil and Horace, in the Middle Ages. This first article he devotes to Persius, whose early popularity is attested by the number of extant MSS. Quite a number of citations are given from German, French, English, and Italian writers. It is interesting to note that Persius was known and read in England as early as the days of Aldhelm and Venerable Bede.

XXXVIII. Pp. 721-754. A continuation of No. XXVI on the equipment of the Roman army. This paper is devoted principally to the examination of the following works: Otto Benndorf, Antike Gesichtshelme u. Sepulchralmasken, 1878; E. Hübner, Römische Schildbuckel, Wien, 1878; Lindenschmit, Bemerkungen üb. d. pilum. Benndorff shows that the practice of covering the faces of the dead with masks was widespread among the ancients; they served to preserve the familiar form, and suggested the custom of preserving the imagines. Next he discusses the subject of ancient helmets, and this part of his work is examined with minute care by Müller, as are also the other works above cited. As most of the paper is taken up with the discussion of minute points it cannot be fully noticed here.

## II.-MISCELLANEOUS.

- 27. P. 754. Ad Inscriptiones Phrygias. W. M. Ramsay defends his conjecture τέκνα ἀωρα ἐντύ[χοιτο] (see on Graeca Phryg. Ins. in Zts. f. vergl. Sprachforschung, 1878), against Crusius's proposal, τέκνα ἀωρα [λίποιτο] (Philol. 1889, p. 44).
- 28. Pp. 755-758. Ad Aristophanem. O. Bachmann suggests: Lysist. 723, την δ' αὐτομολοῦσαν, την δ' ἐπὶ στρούθου μίαν. Pax. 278, νῦν εὐκτέ' ἐστὶ Καλλόνη for νῦν ἐστιν εὐξασθαι καλόν; Αν. 1437, νῦν δ' οὐ λέγων πτερῶ σε for νῦν τοι λέγων πτερῶ σε; Αν. 1013, κεκίνηνταί τινι for κεκίνηνταί τινες.
- 29. Pp. 758-759. Dionysius of Halicarnassus on Lautbildung (De comp. verb. 14). Ernst Graf thinks that Usener (Bonner-Sommerkatalog, 1878) has missed the correct reading in three passages where the question is of the influence of the ἀρτηρία.
- 30. Pp. 760-762. Antonius Liberalis. H. Martini proposes emendations in numerous passages.

31. Pp. 762-764. Another word on Cic. de imp. Cn. Pompei 24. C. Fr. Müller abandons his former reading and accepts the reading supported by v. Leutsch, though moved by other arguments than those brought forward by v. Leutsch.

32. P. 764. Ehwald brings forward additional proof of the correctness of his interpretation of the two verses in Anthol. Lat. I, No. 37 (Philol. XLVI, p. 635).

33. Pp. 765-768. Flaviana, by Chambalu. A continuation of the historical notes begun in Heft 3.

P. 768. Excerpts and reports. A new catalogue of Athos-MSS.—Academy, 1888, Aug. 25.—Anzeiger für Schweiz. Alterthumskunde, 1888, 1.

Pp. 769-778. Indexes.

J. H. KIRKLAND.

CHARLES FORSTER SMITH.

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Vol. XIII, pp. 1-32, 121-197. M. A. Bergaigne's researches into the history of Vedic liturgy begin with an examination of the metrical forms of the hymns contained in the Rigveda. The origin of this Vedic liturgy must be studied above all in the Samhita, the sacred text of the Rigveda. The metrical form shows that even before the establishment of common rites the several families and castes had liturgies, similar to that of the sacrifice of the soma now found in the Veda. A great number of so-called hymns, comprising often the most diverse metres, are in reality simply collections of separate formulas, composed for the express purpose of being recited at different stages of the same ceremony or in successive ceremonies, very much like those described by the Brahmanas and the Sūtras. The Samhita of the Rigveda contains, besides, many fully developed castras, the most important being the prauga-castras, the precepts for the morning sacrifice, in Mandala I, suktas 2 and 3; II 41 and I 23. By the side of many resemblances in metre and form, they show the peculiar differences of the ritual of the three families to which they originally belonged. Some of the real hymns have introductions or conclusions revealing an astonishing uniformity. M. Bergaigne discusses the castras of the hotar recited at the third pressing of the soma and in the atiratra, and those of the hotrakas. The hotar was the priest who had to recite the formulas during the different liturgical ceremonies, with the assistance of the adhvarya who performed the offering, and the adgatar who chanted the songs, while the brahman had the oversight over the whole sacrifice; the hotrakas were the assistants of the four chief-priests and each had three such acolytes.

Other hymns seem to have been castras of ancient forms, and this character we may assign with some degree of certainty to those beginning with two pragathas, or two tricas (tiercets) of the same metre, followed by verses of different metrical form. Under this head belong VIII 1, VI 44, I 84, and even VI 52. Besides the real castras there are other liturgical recitations, e. g. the three hymns in X 76, 94, and 175, which are hymns on the stones of the wine press recited by the Gravastut. The closing verses common to several hymns make one natural

rally think of certain paridhaniyas constantly met with in the later liturgy. Traces of ancient liturgies have been discovered in many hymns of the Samhita and in the conclusions in trishtubhs of hymns in jagatīs; [according to the Praticakhya of the Rigveda the seven fundamental metres are: (1) the gayatrī; (2) the ushnih; (3) the anushtubh; (4) the brihatī; (5) the panktī; (6) the trishtubh; and (7) the jagatī. No. I has 24 syllables, the others always 4 syllables more than the preceding]. It is possible, by a careful comparison of the hymns in gayatris (see Oldenberg in ZDMG. 38, 439 ff.) or in anushtubhs, in trishtubhs and in jagatis, contained in the mandalas and other collections, to establish the fact that several families have in very ancient time observed a distribution of these metres among the three soma-sacrifices, similar to that which prevailed in the later common liturgy. The set ritual of the Yotishtoma took for its main model the ancient liturgy of the Vaicrāmitras at the sacrifice of the soma-juice in the morning, of which the metre is the anushtubh for the first castra and the gayatri for the four others. In the family of Kanva the trishtubh and the yagatī are used very seldom, the gāyatrī and the pragātha ruling almost exclusively, leaving but scant room for the rarer metres. No distinction of metres, however, is observed in the different offerings. In all the families, except the Kanva, and perhaps that of Gautama before Vāmadeva, the trishtubh was the metre of the noon-rite which belongs exclusively to Indra. Among the Vasishthas the trishtubh was the only metre of the hotar at the three sacrifices, save a few exceptions for the evening. All the families, the Kanvas always excepted, show a tendency to reserve the yagati for the evening sacrifice. The fragments in gayatris of the castras of the atiratra have been borrowed partly from the liturgy of Kanva and that of Vāmaveda, where they existed already in the form of fully developed castras; others have undoubtedly been compiled after these models. The agreements, indicated above, have reference to the divinities principally; but at the same time they prove a distribution of divinities and metres among the several sacrifices. Certain features peculiar to the rites of the different families have served in later time to characterize such and such a day of the sattras or sessions. One of the most curious instances of this fact is a combination, peculiar to the liturgy of the Vāsishthas, viz. that of fragments in dvīpadās (dimeters) with such in trishtubhs, introduced into the ritual of the three days chandomas of the Samulhadaçarātra and in that of the fourth day of the Vyūļha-daçarātra.

Pp. 80-III. Luh-Ying-Tchi Li, the military regulations of the Emperor Kia-Ning, were issued in the beginning of our century with a view to reorganize the Chinese army. They were written in Chinese and Mandshu. M. de Harlez publishes a translation of selected chapters of the Mandshu text, to give an idea of the scope of the whole work.—The same writer continues on pp. 229-270 his studies in Chinese history and literature, with a discussion of the I-Li, the oldest Chinese ritual; large extracts in current French serve as specimens of the whole treatise.

Pp. 198-228, 402-427. Stories from Berber, by M. de Rochemonteix, with notes on the language of the Berber branch of the Hamitic family spoken in the southern portion of Morocco by a large population quite distinct from the Arabic invaders and only Muhammadans on the surface. This language em-

braces several branches, the chief of which are the Sûs or Shlûh spoken in the country of Stdi Hashim, south of Morocco proper, the Riff in the mountains of north Morocco, and the Kabail of Algeria. Between these widely separated countries are, all through the intervening Atlas mountains, and also in some parts of the Sahara, more or less varying shades of the same tongue. In short, these subdialects may be said to cover the whole Atlas range from Tunis to Agader, and are more or less intelligible to the people speaking one of the three above-mentioned languages. These three branches of the Berber language, although analogous, are yet quite distinct, somewhat resembling in their relation to each other a group of Keltic languages, such as Gaelic, Irish and Welsh. The term Shlûh is given in Morocco by people of Arabic extraction to the Berber people, and their language is also called Shilha. It was doubtless the prevailing language of the whole of Mauretania before the indigenous inhabitants of the plains were driven into the mountains at the time of the Arab invasion. M. de Rochemonteix prints four interesting tales with their translation into current French which will prove of great use to the students of the Berber language. The words borrowed from the Arabic are carefully noted and given in Arabic characters at the foot of each page. Pp. 202-207 contain a primer of Berber phonetics and rules of transliteration. The stories remind us of those contained in the Arabian Nights and Grimm's fairy tales.

Pp. 297-312. M. Arthur Amiaud. The Assyrian ordinal numbers. There has been a general confusion concerning the Assyrian numerals. Cardinal numbers were classed as ordinals and vice versa. Amiaud gives the following paradigm for the ordinal numerals: (1) Numerals from 1 to 10. (a) Simple forms: masculine pa'lu and feminine pa'ultu; thus we have sanû for sanju, šalšu, ribū for rib'u, hanšu or hamšu, šiššu for šidšu, sibū for sib'u; feminine šanūtu; šalultu (V Rawl. 64, 28a), sibutu (Layard 63, 1), tešūtu (cf. te[ša], Haupt, Nimr. Ep. 54, 8). Like the other Semites the Assyrians may have had originally the common form pa'tlu, reserving pa'ûlu for the numerals in connection with time. The latter encroached on the former and crowded it out; relics we find in forms like mahritu and šanītu, but such feminine forms as \*ribītu, \*hamiltu and \*sibîti could easily have been confounded with rebitu, street, hamilti, five, and sibitti, seven; thus they were dropped to avoid such a confusion. (b) Composite forms: for the masculine either pa'ulû, e. g. samašurû the eighteenth, a compound of saman and ešurū (for ešerūjju); or pa'lū, e. g. samanû, to be read samenû, for sameniijun, see samana, Haupt, Nimr. Ep. 54 8; 55, 24, by the side of the simple form samnu, preserved in arah-samnu, Hebrew מְרָחֶשׁוּן; or pa'lāa, e. g. šalšāa the third (V Rawl. 3, 48). Feminine forms have not yet occurred. (2) The 20th, 30th, etc., are formed from the corresponding cardinal numerals by adding the adjective ending -iiju, e. g. šalāsū the thirtieth for \*šalāsāijju (IV Rawl. 23, 5a). The feminine to išten is ištat, not ištenit, as Delitzsch, Assyr. Gram. p. 203, infers from V Rawl. 34, 28a; this passage is to be read is-ten i-ti sa-ni = the one with the other; the feminine to edu (see V Rawl. 12, 31b) is edtu for \*ahadatu, constr. state edit. The form ahadat registered by Delitzsch, p. 210 of his grammar, from Asurn. I 81, does not exist (see ZA. II 232). The feminine to sina, two, is siten, and that of kilallan, kilalên, kilallê 'ambo' is kilattan (Esarh. V 54; Neb. E. I. H. V 59). Ištânu is not a numeral adjective, as Delitzsch says, but an adverb

meaning 'once'; see IV Rawl. 1, 34 and 35b; 16, 8a, ištānu lā = not once, never.

Pp. 313-354. M. Rubens Duval writes on the Patriarch Mar Jabalaha II and the Mongol princes of Azerbaijan towards the close of saec. XIII. This article is practically a review of M. Bedjan's Histoire du patriarche Jabalaha et de Rabban Çauma (Paris, 1888). The book throws a great deal of light upon the history of Christianity in China and Persia, and also on that of the Mongol Khans of the thirteenth century. Jabalaha was born A. D. 1245 in Koschang, near Peking; during the 37 years of his rule as patriarch he came in contact with at least seven Persian Khans. His teacher and counsellor was Rabban Çauma.

Pp. 355-363. M. J. Darmesteter publishes Pazend text and French translation of 'the duties of a student.' It shows a striking resemblance in contents to the first five chapters of the Middle-English poem, The Schoole of Vertue, by F. Seager, A. D. 1557.

Pp. 364-375. M. E. Senart continues his notes on Indian Epigraphy, examining seven engraved stones from Caboul.

Pp. 376-401. M. E. Drouin. The study of numismatics has yielded a number of additions to our knowledge of Oriental history. The Aramean tongue has been the commercial language of Mesopotomia since saec. VIII B. C. M. Drouin proves this by an examination of a number of Aramean coins; he also treats of the prototype of the Greek  $\beta a \sigma \iota \lambda e i \gamma a \zeta = Assyrian \dot{\alpha}$  and that of  $\beta a \sigma \iota \lambda e i \gamma \beta a \sigma \iota \lambda \dot{\alpha} \dot{\alpha}$ . Persian Shāhānshāh = Aramean Malkān malkā = Assyr. Sar Sarrani. These Aramean coins as a rule show two figures, on the reverse that of the local sovereign with a simple diadem, and on the obverse that of the  $\beta a \sigma \iota \lambda \dot{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \dot{\alpha}$  with the Arsacide tiara.

Pp. 428-489. M. Clément Huart, in his Turkish Bibliography, gives the titles of 320 books and periodicals in Turkish, Persian, and Arabic, published at Constantinople in 1887-1888. Attention is called to the many translations of French books, etc. (those of Victor Hugo and others). The same five divisions are observed as in the former articles. See A. J. P. II 121, III 369, VIII 377.

Vol. XIV, pp. 40-58. The Acts of Sharbil and the continuation of them, the Acts of Barsamya occupy the second place after the Doctrine of Addai or Thaddaeus, as regards their importance for the history of the Christian church of Edessa. M. R. Duval again examines them and concludes that they are of no value for history and belong to the domain of fiction.

Pp. 59-83. M. Serge Larionoff contributes the Persian text and French translation of the history of King Djemshid and the Dios.

Pp. 84-110. M. van Berchem sends an Arabic tale in the Egyptian dialect, with French translation, preceded by notes on the phonetic peculiarities of Cairo-Arabic. See also Toy in P. A. O. S. Oct. 1888, pp. cxii-cxiv.

Pp. 111-142, 197-237. M. Loret publishes a long article on ancient Egyptian flutes. Examining the descriptions of flutes found in Greek and Latin authors, he states that the μόνανλος οτ μόνανλος κάλαμος was a flute blown at the end. It was remarkable for sweetness, but with little power, and its modern repre-

sentative is the Old-English flute. The φῶτεγξ πλαγίαυλος is the cross-flute or German flute. The real name for the instrument flute is συριγς or Pandean pipe, Latin fistula, while αύλος, tibia, is either the clarionet, i. e. the single reed-system, or the hautbois, i. e. the double reed-system. These differences not only existed in Greece, but we can trace them back to Egypt, as shown by the reed pipes in the Egyptian collection of the British Museum, at the Louvre, in Florence and Turin, Berlin and Leyden. The Egyptians also had the credit of the many-toned flute, the πολύφθογγος αὐλὸς, as they had of the manystringed instruments. There were, in fact, seven kinds of flutes among the Egyptians (p. 133). Some have three, others four holes, as is the case with 14 of those at Leyden, which are made of common reed. Some were furnished with a small mouthpiece of the same humble materials, or of a thick straw inserted into the hollow of the pipe. In appearance the instrument was a straight tube, without any enlargement at the mouth, and when played was held with both hands. Pp. 197-207 contain a descriptive catalogue of about 40 flutes, of which I will quote but one, No. 33: In the Egyptian collection of the British Museum is a small reed pipe of eight and three-quarter inches in length, and into the hollow of this little pipe is fitted at one end a split straw of thick Egyptian growth, to form its mouthpiece.-Most of the flutes were of moderate length, apparently not exceeding a foot and a half. We learn from these pipes that the Egyptians understood the principle of the bagpipe drone, and that they played music in the pentaphonic or Scotch scale, as well as in the diatonic scale. The whole article serves to support the views of those scholars who maintain Egyptian origin for most of the Greek arts and sciences.

Pp. 143-192 contain fragments of Turkish folklore, by M. Alric; text and translation, with notes on Turkish prosody.

Pp. 238-270. M. Clem. Huart has some interesting remarks on a Pehlevi-Mussulman MS belonging to the library attached to the Santa Sophia mosque at Constantinople. It is No. 66 of the catalogue published in 1887 A. D., and has the heading: Questions touching the illustrious Koran. The MS is of quarto size, numbers 355 sheets, with 21 lines on every page; the pages, however, are not numbered. It is not a regular commentary to the Koran, but rather a treatise on cabalistic formulas occurring in the Koran, and purposes to facilitate the understanding of the Arabic text. The author is not known. At first sight the MS seems to be written in good Persian, but a close scrutiny shows besides the pure Persian a number of passages written in a peculiar dialect, called by Huart the Guébri dialect of the Parsi of Yezd, a branch of the Pehlevi-Mussulman or modern Median.

Pp. 271-363, 381-493. 'Amda Seyon, i. e. pillar of Zion, King of Ethiopia, ruled from 1314-1344 A. D.; he is also known as Gabra-Masqal, i. e. servant of the cross, a name which he assumed when he became king. M. Jules Perruchon publishes the Ethiopic text with French translation of the wars of that king. The text is reprinted from No. 861 of the Oriental MSS of the British Museum. This MS contains, according to Wm. Wright's catalogue, pp. 315-318, a compendium of history, comprising: (1) the history of the Jews from Eli to our Saviour; (2) the history of the Roman Empire from Tiberius to

Heraclitus, 611 A. D. (3) Leading dates from the creation to the time of Muhammad, etc. (No. 7) The chronicles of Ethiopia, compiled A. D. 1784, by order of Dajazmach Hailu, in the first year of the reign of King 'Iyasu. The seventh chapter of this chronicle is the history of 'Amda Seyon, son of Wěděm Ra'ad. It is one of the oldest documents for the history of Abessynia. The language is pure Ge'ez, the style readable and at times elegant; the great number of similes, comparisons and quotations from the Old and New Testament show that the author was a priest. He gives, however, not merely an enumeration of historical facts, but clothes his story in the form of an historical novel, thus making it a real literary production. We are told that under the Emperor 'Amda Seyon the Muhammadans had become very powerful and entirely independent. One of the king's officers having been killed by them, the king invaded their country, and defeated them so that the Muhammadans had to ask for peace. It was granted upon the condition that Haqqed-Din, their leader, be replaced by his brother Sabr-ed-Din. At this point the chronicle begins. After the usual invocation of the Trinity, the writer tells us how the new Mussulman king Sabr-ed-Din threatened the king 'Amda Seyon and his wife, and intended to conquer Ethiopia. 'Amda Seyon, made aware of these intentions, recalls to Sabr-ed-Din the circumstances which had brought about the defeat of his brother and predecessor, as well as the death of Daråder, another brother, and threatens him with the same punishment if he should persist in his evil resolution. Sabr-ed-Din answers the king with renewed insolence and defies 'Amda Seyon to attack him. A series of battles and fights begin, invariably terminating in favor of the king of Ethiopia. Pp. 279-326 and 381-440 contain the Ethiopic text, pp. 327-363 and 441-483 the French translation. The text is edited with the variants of the Ethiopic MS No. 143 of the Bibl. Nat. à Paris, also containing the history of 'Amda Şĕyôn; to the translation are added many notes touching geography and ethnography. The writer gives also the different renderings of Father d'Almeida, whose translation is now in the British Museum, catalogued as MS No. 9861, Historia de Ethiopia a alta ou Abassia, imperio do Abexim, cujo rey vulgarmente he chamado Preste Joani etc., by Padre Manoel d'Almeida (1623?). Appended is an index of proper and geographical names contained in the chronicle. Sabr-

ed-Din, i. e. مبر المدين 'patient in the faith,' was, according to the Arabian historian, Makrizi, a nephew, not the brother of Haqq-ed-Din. Of interest is the popular etymology of this proper name by the Ethiopic king, who calls his adversary Sabra-Din, i. e. law-breaker, from the Ethiopic sabára, to crush, to

break; Arabic بر (thábarn) and din, justice, law.

Pp. 494-525. M. C. Imbault-Huart describes two Muhammadan insurrections which occurred in the Chinese province Kan-sou in 1648 and 1781 A. D.

Nouvelles et Mélanges. Vol. XIII, pp. 112-120. M. Groff has another note on the words ללף and "לף occurring in the Egypto-Aramean papyrus at the Louvre (see A. J. P. X 492); he thinks they mean 'a sort of wine,' while M. de Vogüé, on pp. 277 ff., says they denote measures of capacity. On p. 499 Groff compares Talmudic לבא with our "לף.—M. J. Oppert translates and inter-

prets an Assyrian text, published by Father Strassmayer in ZA. III 147, which corroborates the statement of Justin (XLI, chap. 4) that the beginning of the Arsacide era falls in the year 256 B. C., when A. Manlius Vulso Longus and M. Attilius Regulus were consuls at Rome. The inscription speaks of a lunar eclipse in the year 232 of the Arsacide era, which exactly corresponds to the one registered under March 23 of the year 24 B. C. Oppert resumes his discussion on pp. 505-508, 509 f., and 511-514 against Epping's remarks in ZA. IV 78; also see Comptes Rendus de l'Académie des inscriptions et belles-lettres, 1888, p. 322 f., and ZA. IV 174-185 and 391-399.—R. Duval speaks in terms of highest praise of E. Kautzsch and A. Socin's translation of the Genesis.

Pp. 271-296. According to M. Groff, Gen. 15, 13-16 and Exod. 12, 40 belong to different recensions.—M. Jos. Halévy maintains the identity of מַבְּרִים with מִבְּרִים (Ezechiel 47, 16), a Syrian village on the frontier (cf. אָבָּס Gen. 10, 30) between אַבְּרִים against those Assyriologists who identify it with the ancient Babylonian Sippara. The Syriac form of מַבְּרִים occurs in the Babylonian chronicle as Shabara'in: Σαβαρίμ.—Ptolemy's mountain, ΑΛCΑΔΑΜΟC, near the Anti-Lebanon, is a mistake for ΑΛCΑΛΑΜΟC, this stands for Hebrew אַבְּרָטוֹן; some minor MSS of Ptolemy really read 'Αλσάλαμος, and still better 'Ασάλμανος, which last is the only correct reading for מָבְּרָטוֹן בּיִּרְטִּלְּבָּיִם We can now correct Psalm 68, 15b, and translate: On the mountain of snow, on Ṣalmon, the mountain of snow being Mount Hermon. [A similar instance of such a mistake of Λ for Δ is mentioned by Lagarde. Greek ΑΔΑΜΑC was read ΑΛΑΜΑC by Arabic translators, this gave rise to the

considered as article as in Al-Iskender for Alexander, etc.]—M. L'Abbé Martin reviews R. Duval's edition of Bar Bachlûl's Syriac Lexicon. This work, dating from saec. X of our era, is very important for the history of the translation of scientific books from Greek into Arabic and Syriac. It also gives much information to Hellenists. The publication of this lexicon by M. Duval is a masterpiece of exactness and conscientious philological work.—M. B-M. announces E. Mercier's Histoire de l'Afrique septentrionale depuis les temps les plus reculés jusqu'à la conquête française (1890), 2 Vols., and L. Pinto's Récréations grammaticales de Hariri.

tion; thus Saipar-ma = Hebrew לפלול + ma; Sapalulme = Aramean + פפלול me; Tarqutimme = Tarqutim, connected with the name of the god Tarhun or Tarqû + me; and Urume, the city of Tarqutimme = Uru, city + me. Another evident proof of the Semitic character of this language is the phrase bit-hilâni, mentioned expressly by Assyrian writers as a Hittite word; it is equal to the Hebrew תֵיל חֵיל - Reviewing M. Minaïef's Researches and materials touching Buddhism, II, A Buddhist repository, M. L. Feer mentions that Abel Rémusat in 1824 had prepared a MS of the same contents; circumstances prevented him from publishing it. Excellent as M. Minaïef's edition is, Abel Rémusat's would have been, for various reasons, still better and more complete.-Kälidäsa's Şakuntala has been translated into French from a Tamil version, by M. Gérard Devèze (Paris, 1888). As the version differs from the well-known recensions of the Sanskrit text, it is to be regretted that the translator gives no particulars at all of the Tamil author. But in the dearth of our knowledge of Tamil literature we can nevertheless welcome this useful work of a promising student (L. Feer).-M. de Goeje sends an obituary of the late Dr. Wm. Wright, Sir T. Adams' Professor at Cambridge, born in India in 1830, and died on the 22d May, 1889. It is the heaviest blow that Oriental studies have sustained since the decease of the veteran Fleischer. With him the triad of comparative Semitic scholars breaks up, only two, Noeldeke and I. Guidi, remaining. Wright's lectures on the comparative grammar of the Semitic languages have been left in such a form that they can be printed, and their publication has been undertaken by the Syndics of the University Press. He was an active member of the Old Testament Revision company, and did much good service in their work.-Michele Amari, well known to all scholars as the author of the Studies on the Sicilian Vespers and other great works, died at Florence, July 27, 1889, honored and lamented by all as a true patriot and a man of great literary distinction.-Another loss is the death of M. Georges Guyeisse, a promising young Orientalist.—E. Mahler, of Vienna, discusses the relation of Sab'e šiltanu mat Musuri to Pir'u šar mat Musuri (Botta, p. 145, 2, ll. 1 and 3). Sabe is the Seve, So, NID of the Bible, II Kings 17, 4, the Sabaq of the XXV dynasty. Now just as Joseph became שלים על כַּל־הַאָּרִץ, the unlimited ruler of the country, while Pharaoh retained the title of legitimate king, so also was Sabaq-Sab'e the actual ruler, while Pir'u = Pharaoh was the royal dignitary.

Vol. XIV, pp. 193-196 contain reviews, by M. R. Duval, of A. Chabot's Elementary Hebrew Grammar, 3d edition, Paris, 1889, and by M. Barbier de Meynard of R. Youssouf's Dictionnaire turc-français, Constantinople, 1888, 2 vols., in-12.

Pp. 364-380. M. G. Bénédite gives an account of a mission to the Sinaitic peninsula.—M. E. Drouin recommends V. A. Smith, The coinage of the early or imperial Gupta dynasty of Northern India, London, 1889; a reprint from the XXI Volume of the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society.—M. R. Duval praises Max Loehr's edition of Georgii Abulfaragi Bar Ebraya's Syriac annotations to the Epistles of Paul, Goettingen, 1889.—M. Barbier de Meynard is as favorably impressed by the VI Volume of Wm. Pertsch's monumental work, Die Handschriften-verzeichnisse der Königlichen Bibliothek zu Berlin, containing the catalogue of Turkish MSS, as Pavet de Courteille of the preceding volumes.

Pp. 526-543. M. R. Duval has a paper on the determinative article of the Arabic dialect of Lihyan, which is the dialect of the inscriptions of El-Oela discovered by Ed. Glaser. It is written 77, rarely & and followed by J (n) before gutturals which are not capable of reduplication. M. Halévy, comparing it with the Hebrew article, suggests that 17 (han) was the original form of the Semitic article. Duval agrees with Halévy as far as the article of the Lihyan dialect is concerned, believes, however, that in Hebrew-Aramean forms like אָנְבֶּה הַנְעֶלָה הְנָעֵלָה הָנְעֵלָה מְנָדָע, the n is merely a nasal prolongation of the vowel.-M. Groff speaks of the land of Goshen, Joshua 10, 41 and 11, 16 .- M. Eivaciji Modi, of Bombay, offers some remarks on the names of halting-places and stations between Pichaver and Caboul, quoting many popular etymologies of these names current among the inhabitants. M. Darmesteter supplies the linguistic etymologies or several places mentioned by the learned Parsi.-Obituary addresses delivered by M. Barbier de Meynard and M. Ernest Renan at the funeral of M. Pavet de Courteille, the distinguished Professor of Turkish at the College de France, born at Paris, June 23, 1821, and died Monday, Dec. 16, 1889.

Vol. XV, pp. 1-101. M. P. Sabbathier. Studies in Vedic liturgy. The Agnishtoma according to the Crauta-sutra of Acvalayana. The liturgical sūtras are twofold: (1) the Kalpa- or crauta-sūtras based on revelation (cruti), that is, on the brahmanas; and (2) the grihya- or smarta-sutras, which rest simply on tradition (smriti). It is only through the study of the sūtras that we gain a true insight into the real character of the Vedic religion. They are exoteric, while the brahmanas are esoteric. The sūtras are so complicated that it is difficult even for the best Sanskrit students to understand them. At the suggestion of the late M. Abel Bergaigne the writer has undertaken to translate the crautasūtra of Açvalāyana, with all the supplementary explanations and the philological commentary necessitated by the enigmatic precision of the text. Of this sutra he prints the fifth chapter, which treats of the celebration of the Agnishtoma, the most simple form of the soma-sacrifice. The Sanskrit text is published in the Bibliotheca Indica (1864-1874), with the commentary of Gargyanarayana; the comparison with the other sutras and the brahmanas of the Rigveda and the Yagurveda have furnished useful help. The Agnishtoma or praise of Agni is properly the name of the saman or chanted strophe preceding the twelfth castra, the Agnimārūta. Later it was used to designate the whole ceremony, which ends with this castra.

Pp. 102-112. M. Darmesteter calls attention to the traces of Buddhism in the language spoken in Afghanistan and Beluchistan, and speaks of the original home of the Brahouis.—M. Barbier de Meynard pays tribute to the recent publication, by the Jesuit fathers at Beyrouth, of the Maqamat of Hamadani, with the commentary of Sheikh 'Abdo. Meynard gives a short biography of Hamadani, the founder of this branch of a literature which was brought to its height by Hariri a century and a half later. He also announces the appearance of the first two volumes of M. Amélineau's Monuments pour servir à l'histoire de l'Egypte chrétienne, the whole work to be completed in 15 volumes.

W. Muss-Arnolt.

# RECENT PUBLICATIONS.

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